Introduction to Sensors & Actuators

Basic Principle of Sensor

Measuring Parameter

Conversion Device

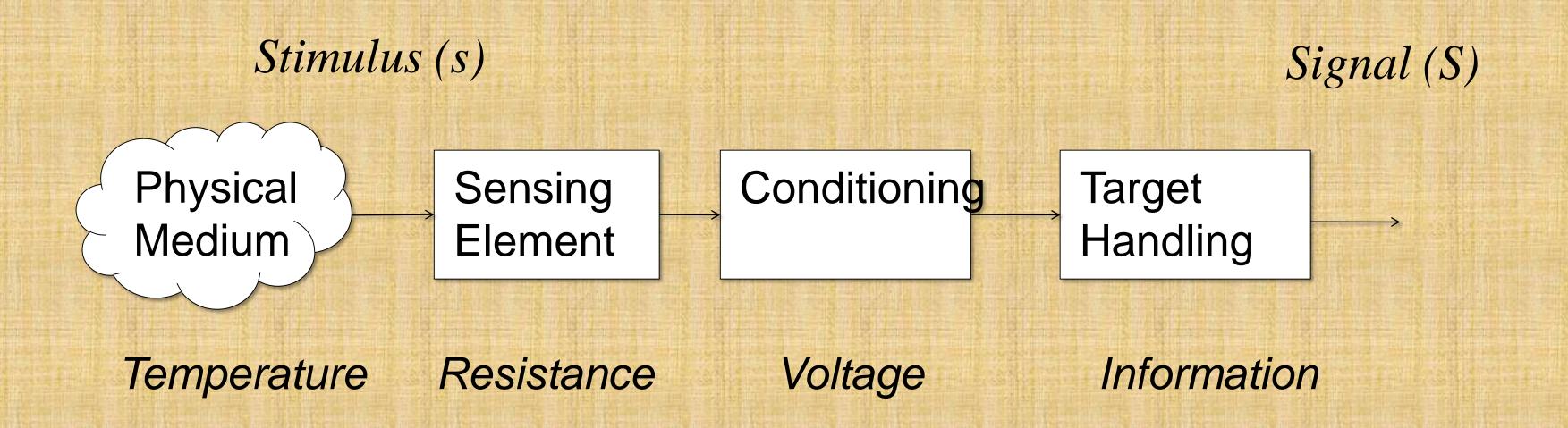
Useful Signal

Displacement, Temperature, Pressure etc...

Voltage, current, capacitance

✓ Sensor is a device that when exposed to a physical phenomenon (temperature, displacement, force, etc.) produces a proportional output signal (electrical, mechanical, magnetic, etc.).

Sensors



Transducers
Micro-sensors 10⁻⁶m

Transfer Function

$$S = f(s)$$

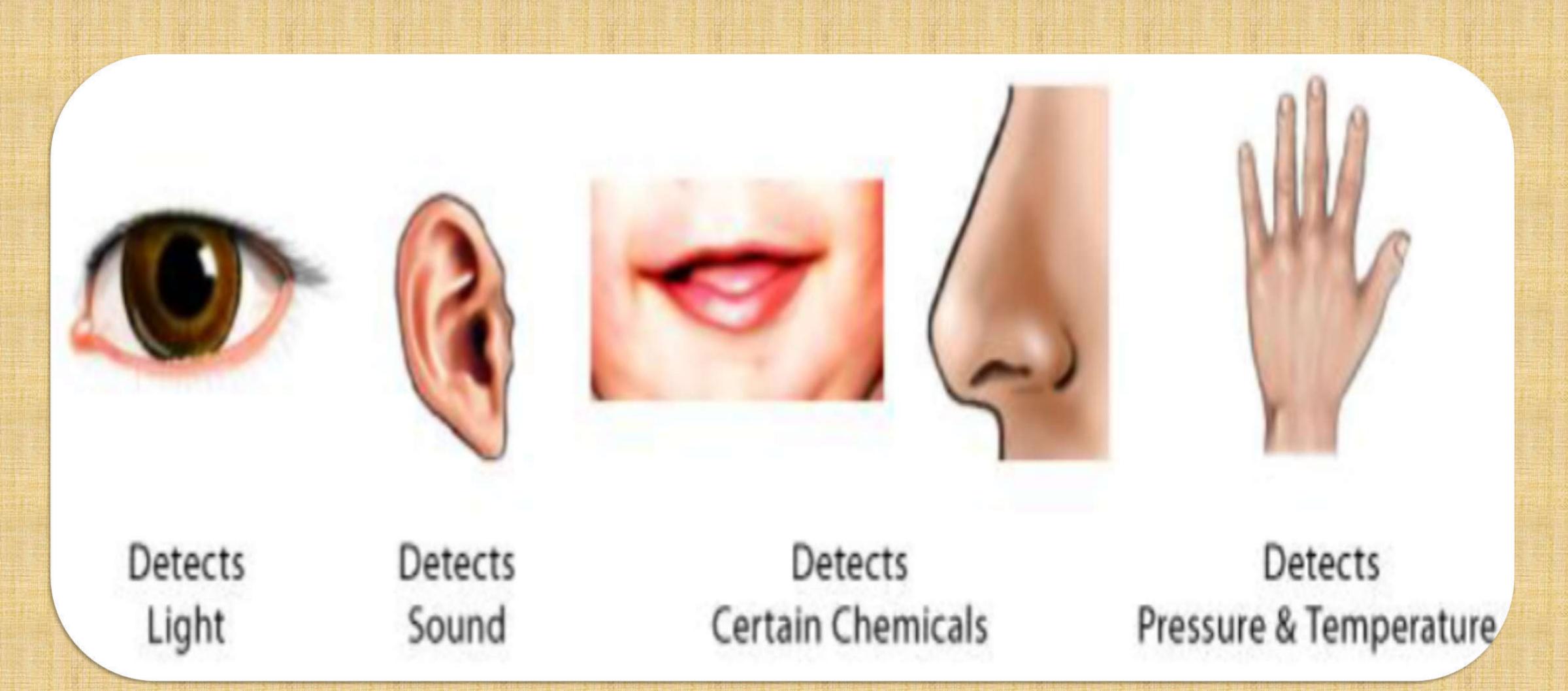
where S = output signal; s = stimulus; and f(s) = functional relationship For binary sensors: S = 1 if s > 0 and S = 0 if $s \le 0$.

The ideal functional form for an analogue measuring device is a simple proportional relationship, such as:

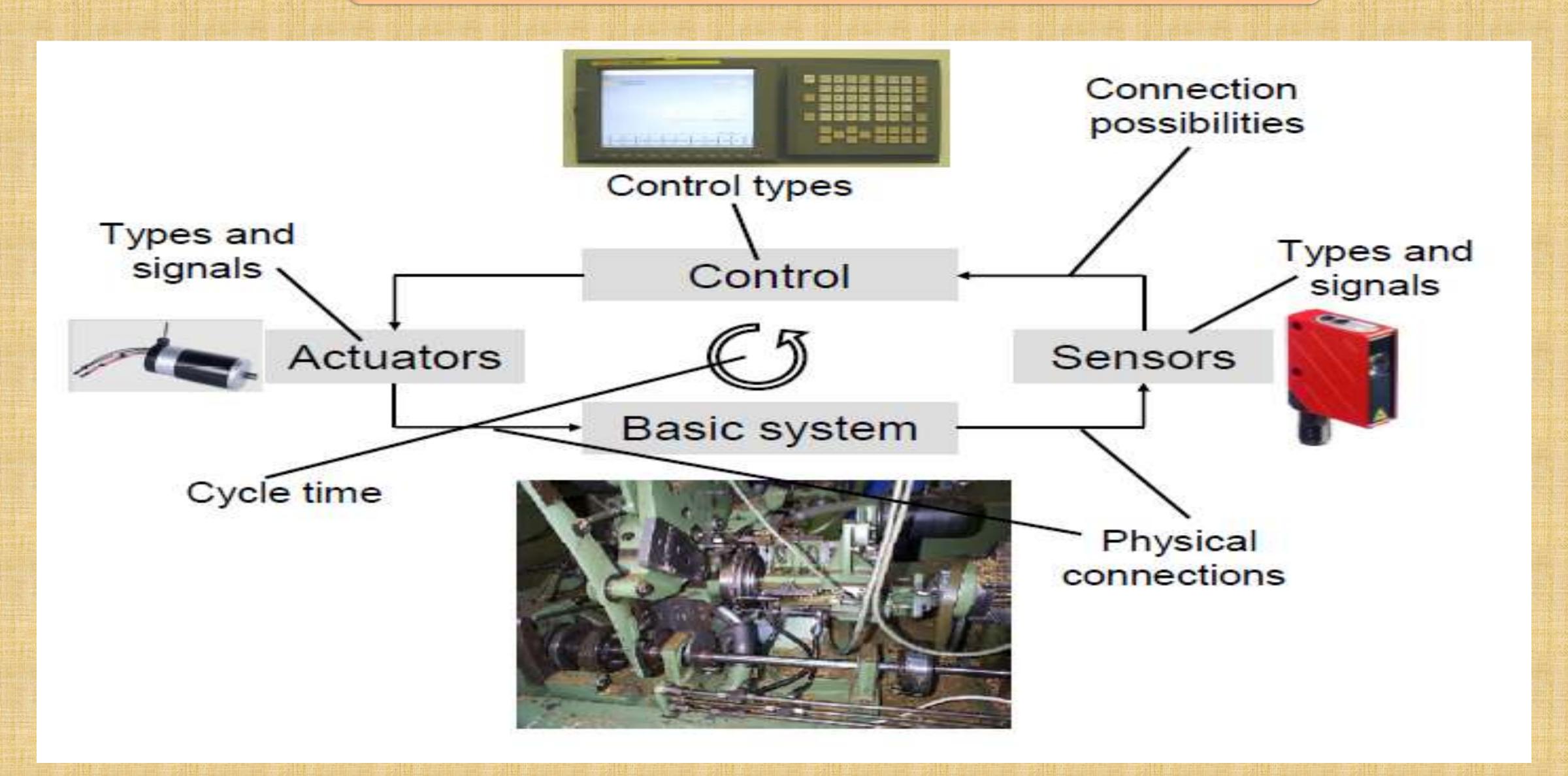
$$S = C + ms$$

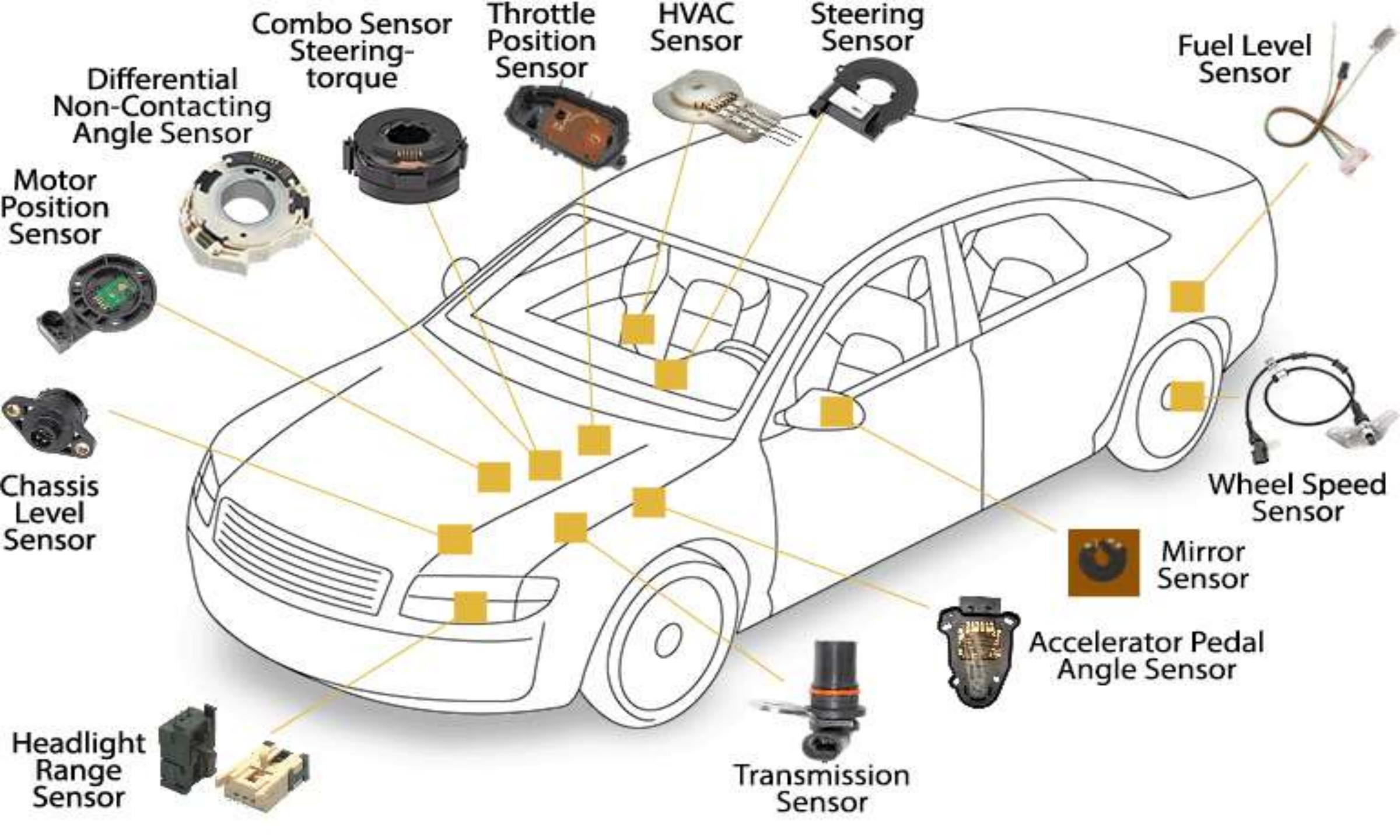
where C = output value at a stimulus value of zero and m = constant of proportionality (sensitivity)

Human beings are equipped with 5 different types of sensors.



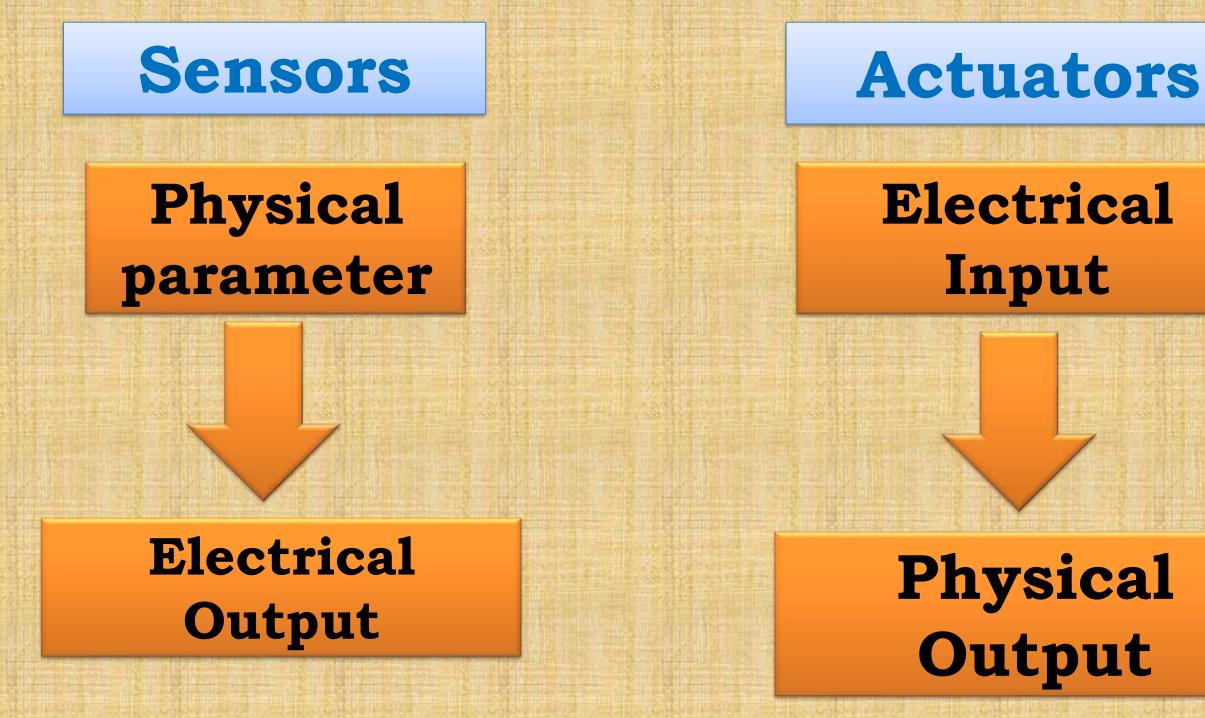
System Overview





Transducer

- ✓ A device which converts one form of energy to another
- \checkmark When input is a physical quantity and output electrical \rightarrow Sensor
- \checkmark When input is electrical and output a physical quantity \to Actuator



e.g. Piezoelectric:

Force -> voltage

Voltage-> Force

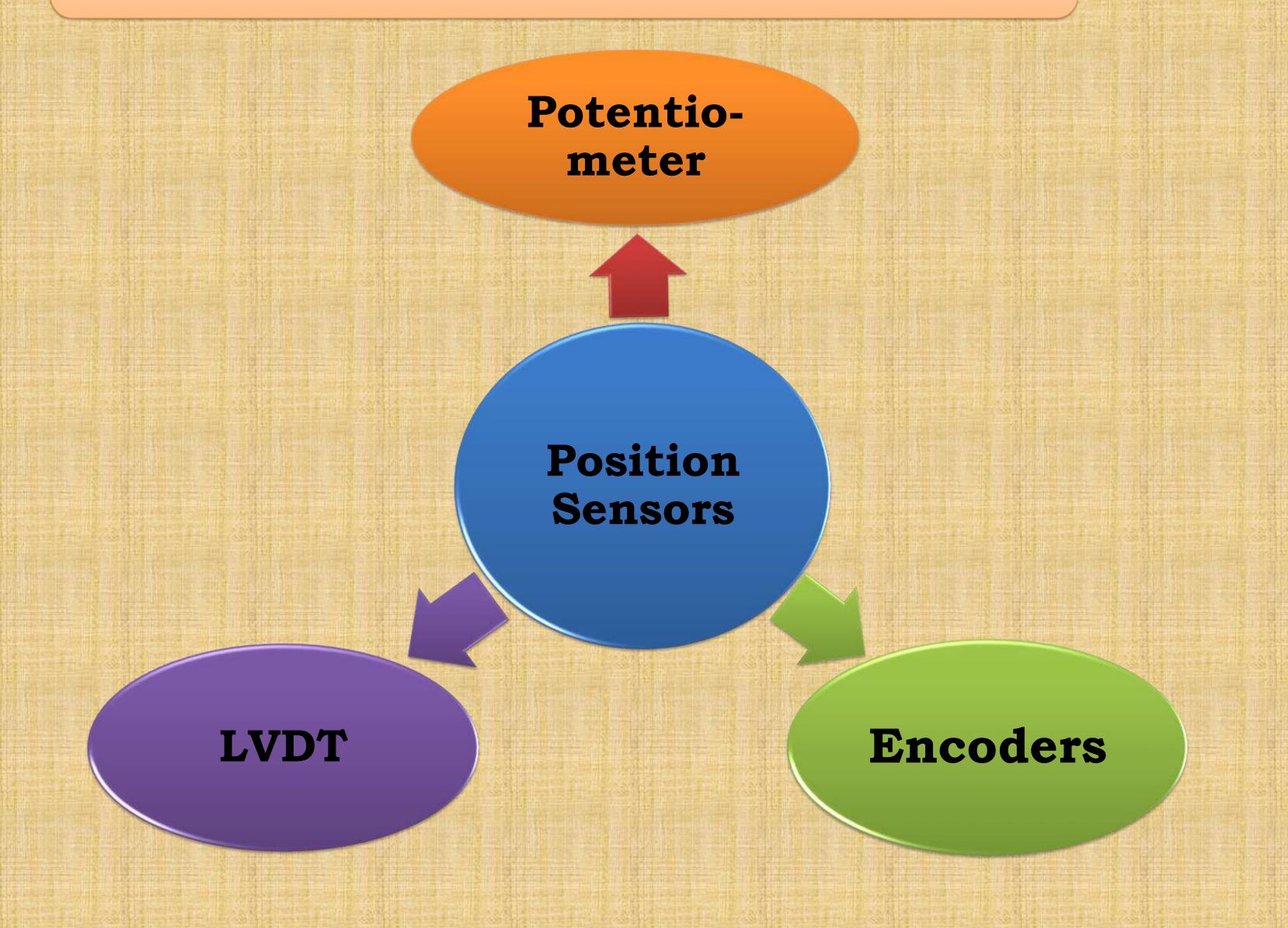
SENSOR, TRANSDUCER & ACTUATOR

Transducer: a device that converts energy from one form to another

Sensor: converts a physical parameter to an electrical output (a type of transducer, e.g. a microphone)

 Actuator: converts an electrical signal to a physical output (opposite of a sensor, e.g. a speaker)

1.Position Sensors



Potentiometer

- ✓A three-terminal resistor with a sliding contact that forms an adjustable voltage divider
- ✓ Used to convert rotary or linear displacement to a voltage
- ✓ Resistance value can also be converted to a voltage

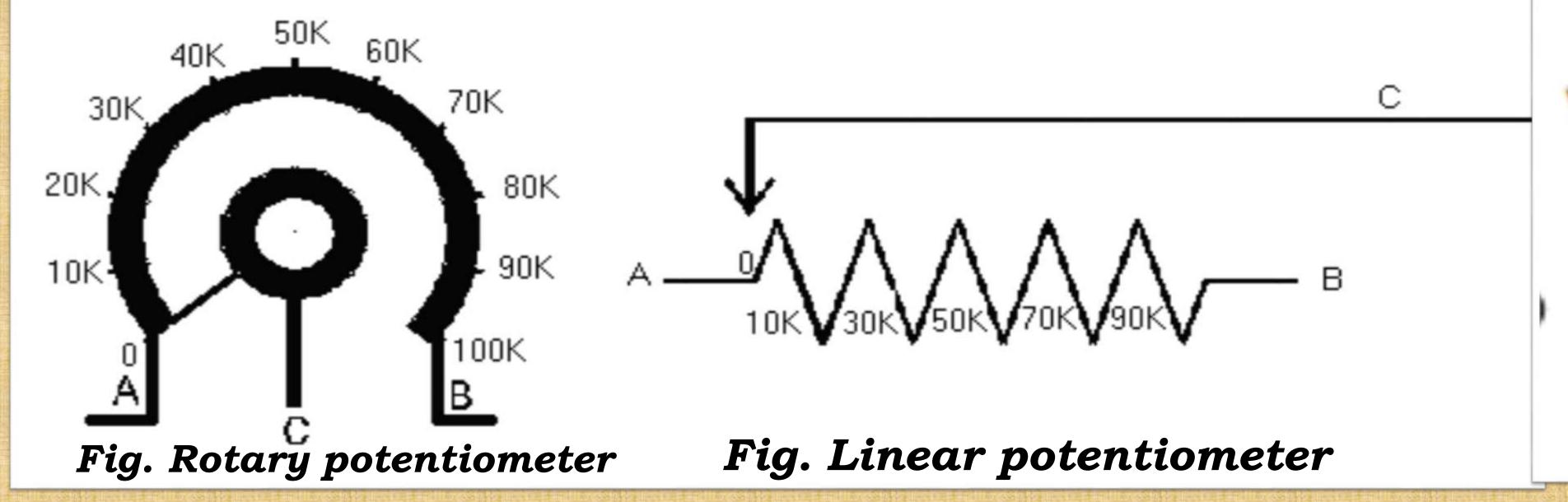
✓ Used to detect angular position (i.e. of a robot arm, etc.)

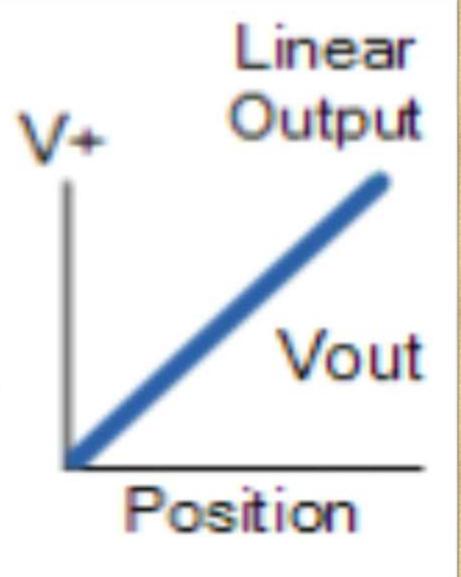
Potentiometer

Rotary potentiometer

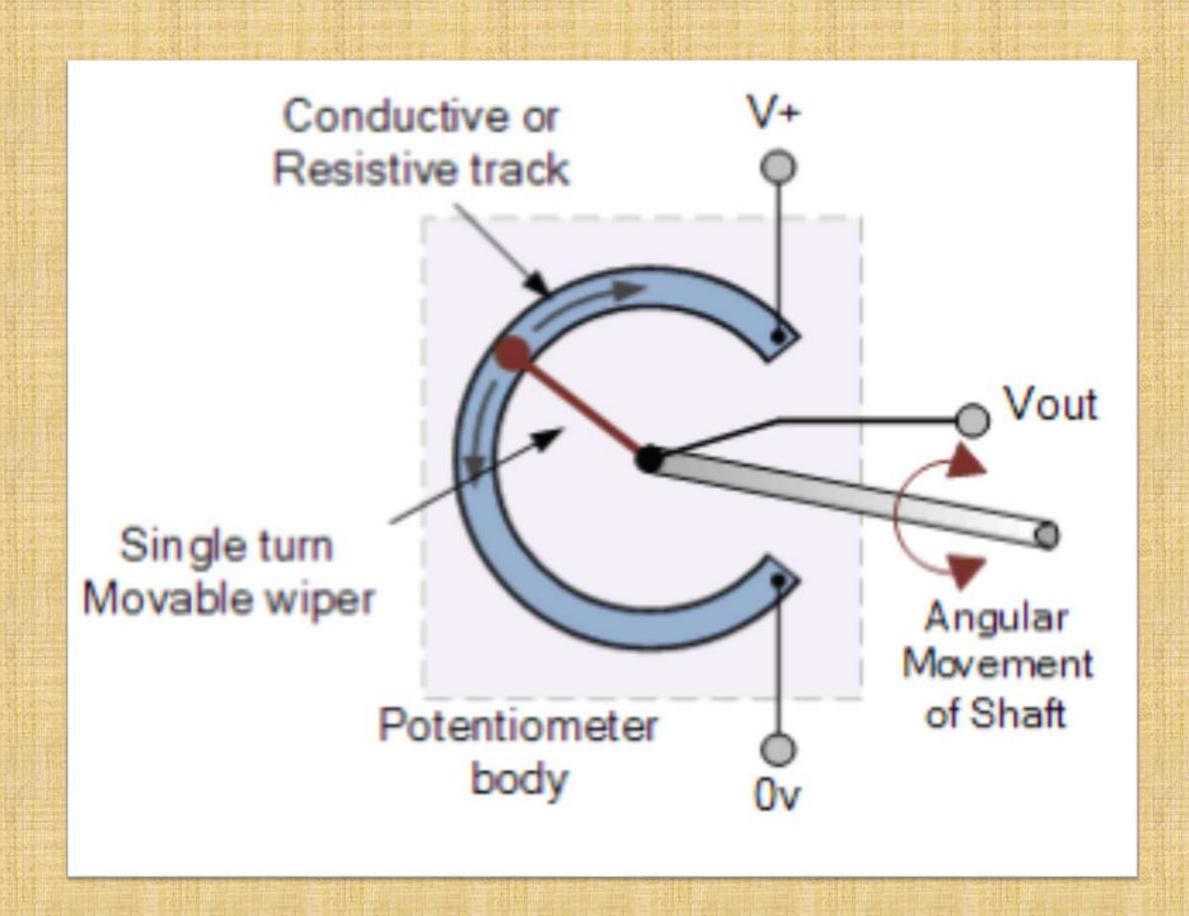


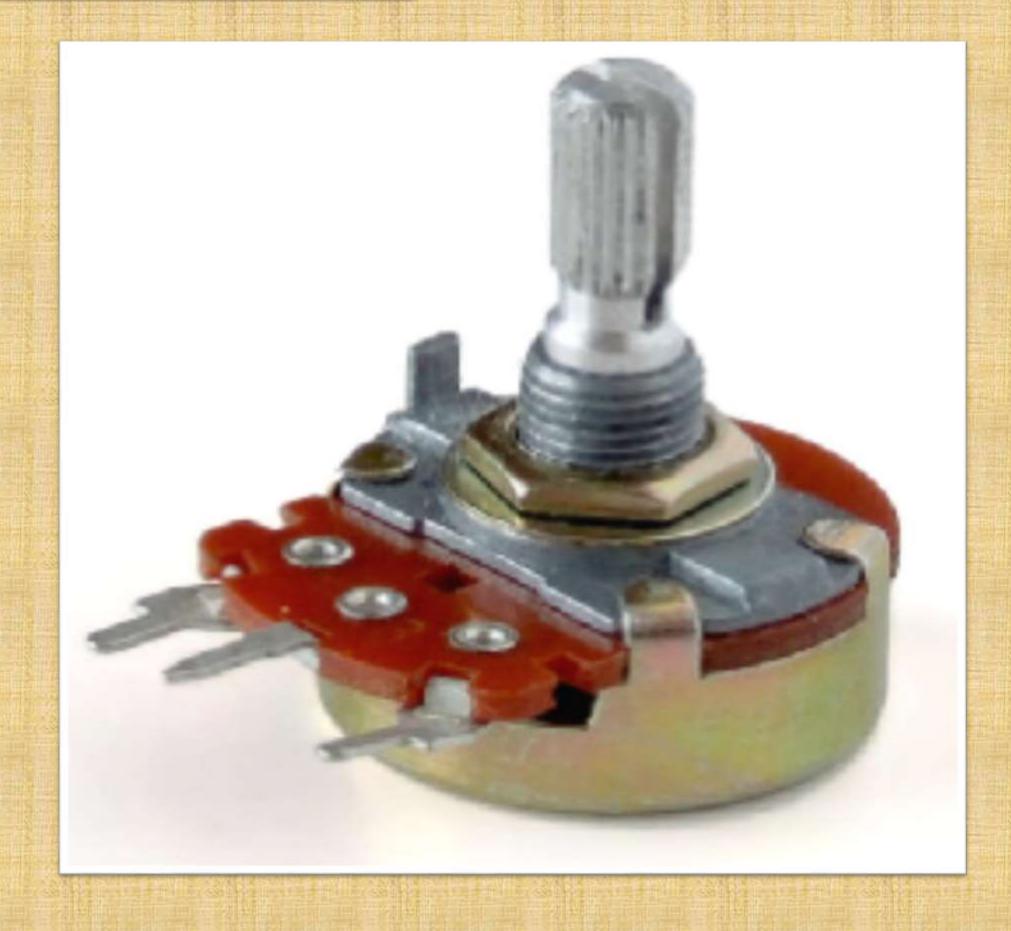
- ✓ A rotary and linear potentiometer is a variable resistance device that can be used to *measure angular position and linear position*.
- ✓ Through voltage division the change in resistance can be used to create an output voltage that is directly proportional to the input displacement.





Rotary Potentiometer

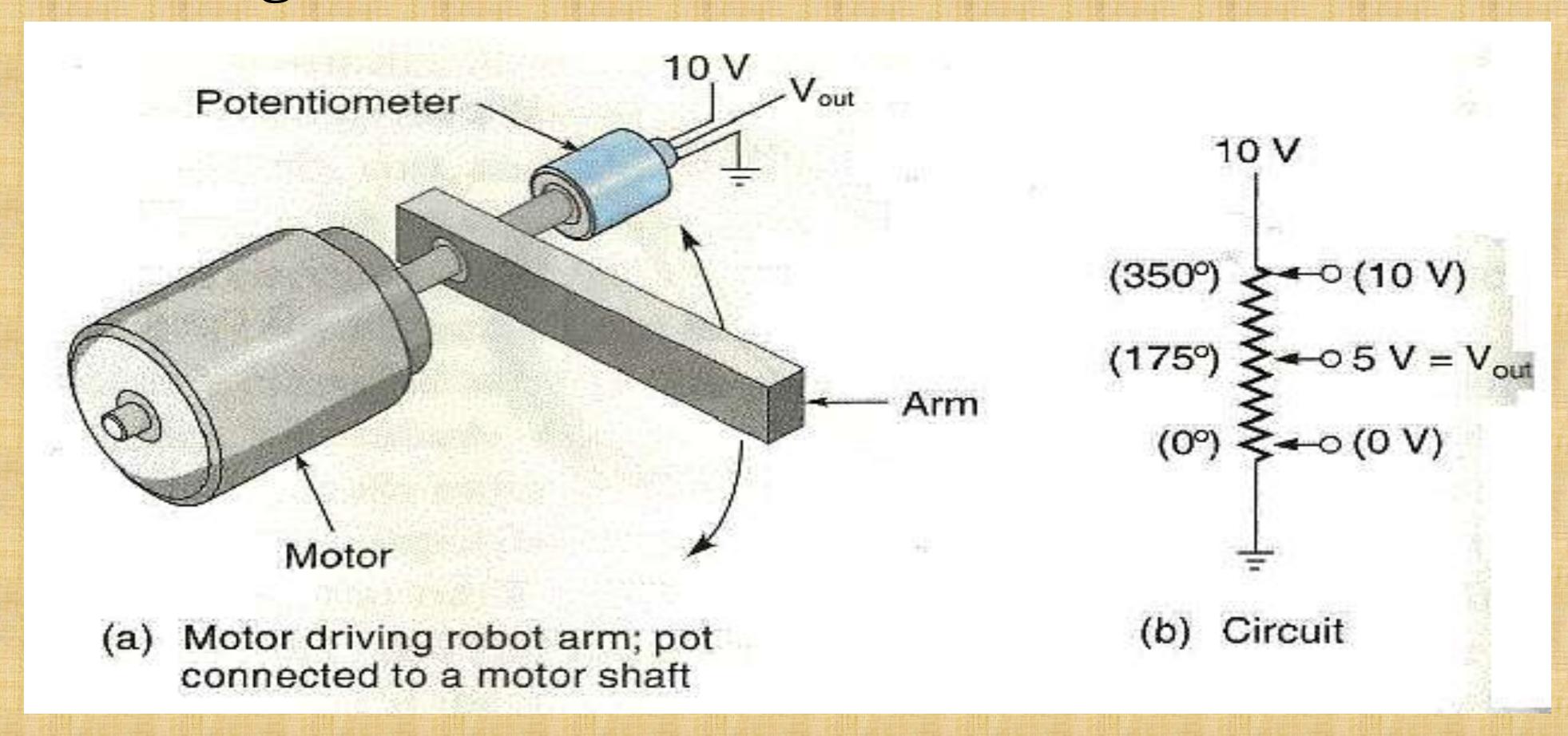




Resistive material has a uniform resistivity so that the ohmsper-inch value along its length is constant.

Eg-

- ✓ The wiper can be used to control the voltage along an element.
- ✓ The wiper taps off the voltage drop between its contact point and ground



Advantages of the potentiometer are:

- ✓ Easy to use
- ✓ Low cost
- ✓ High amplitude output
- ✓ Easily available
- ✓ Can be used for measuring even large displacements.
- ✓ Can produce a high electrical efficiency

Disadvantages

✓ Since the wiper is sliding across the resistive element there is a possibility of friction and wear. Hence the number of operating cycles are limited.

Proximity sensors

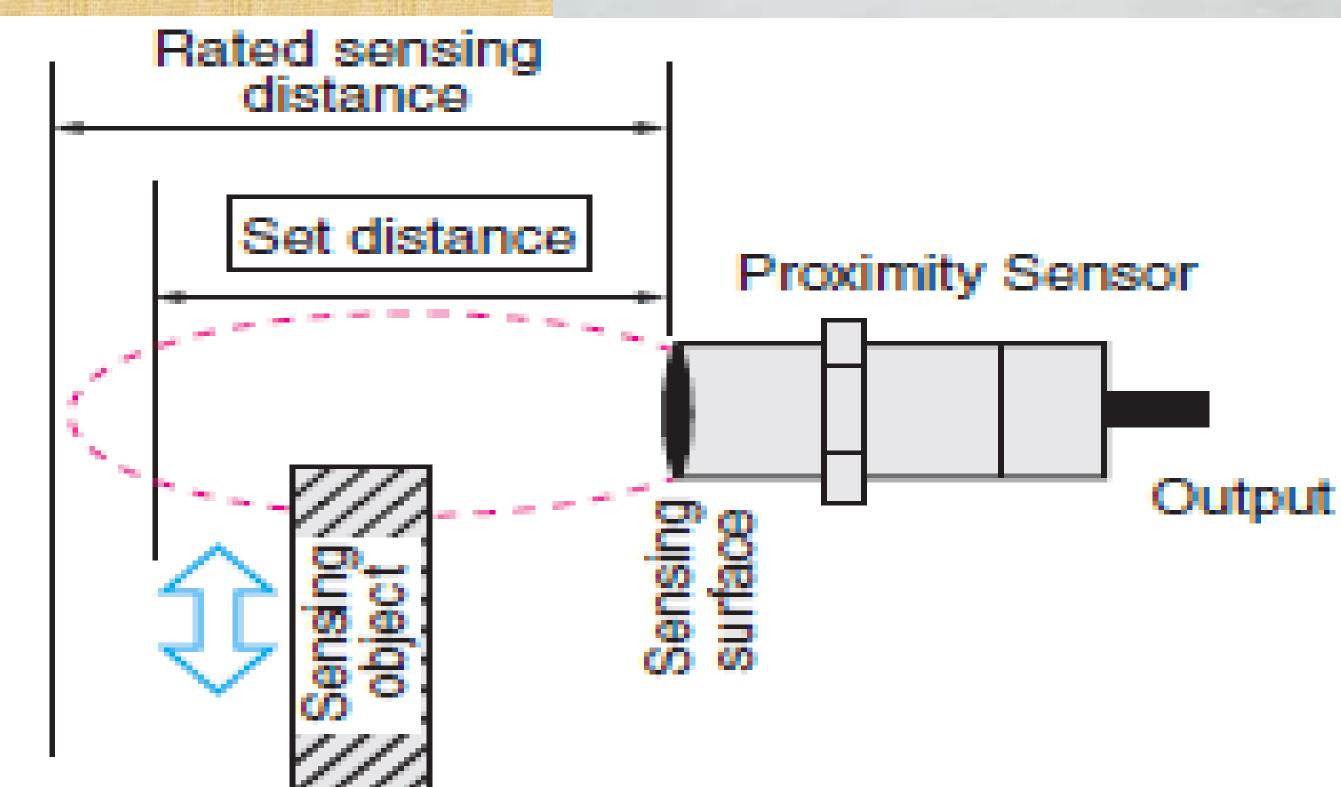
• Proximity sensors types:



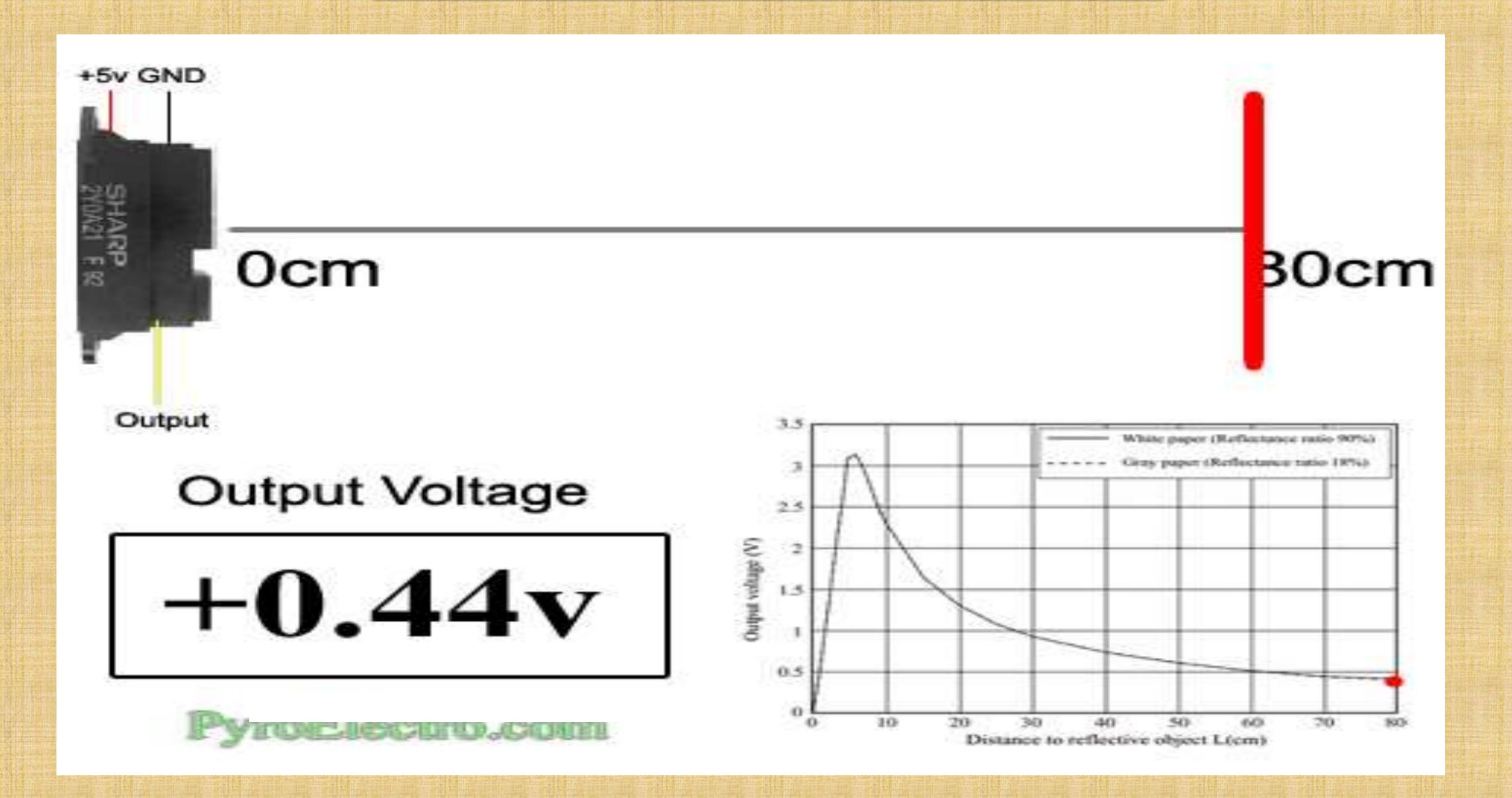
-Optical

-Inductive

Capacitive



Proximity sensors

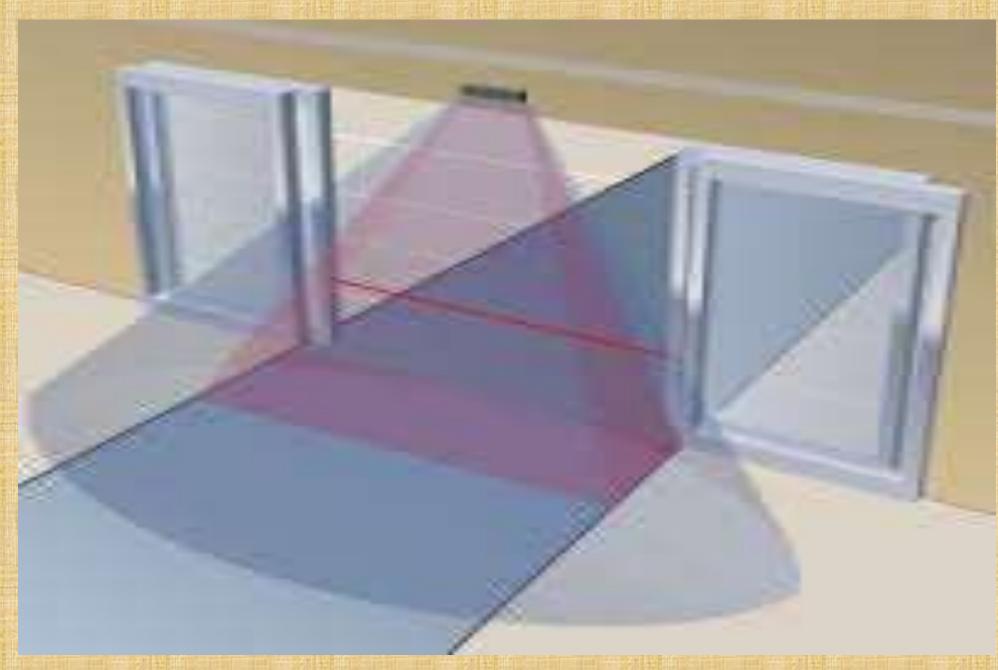


Application of Proximity sensors

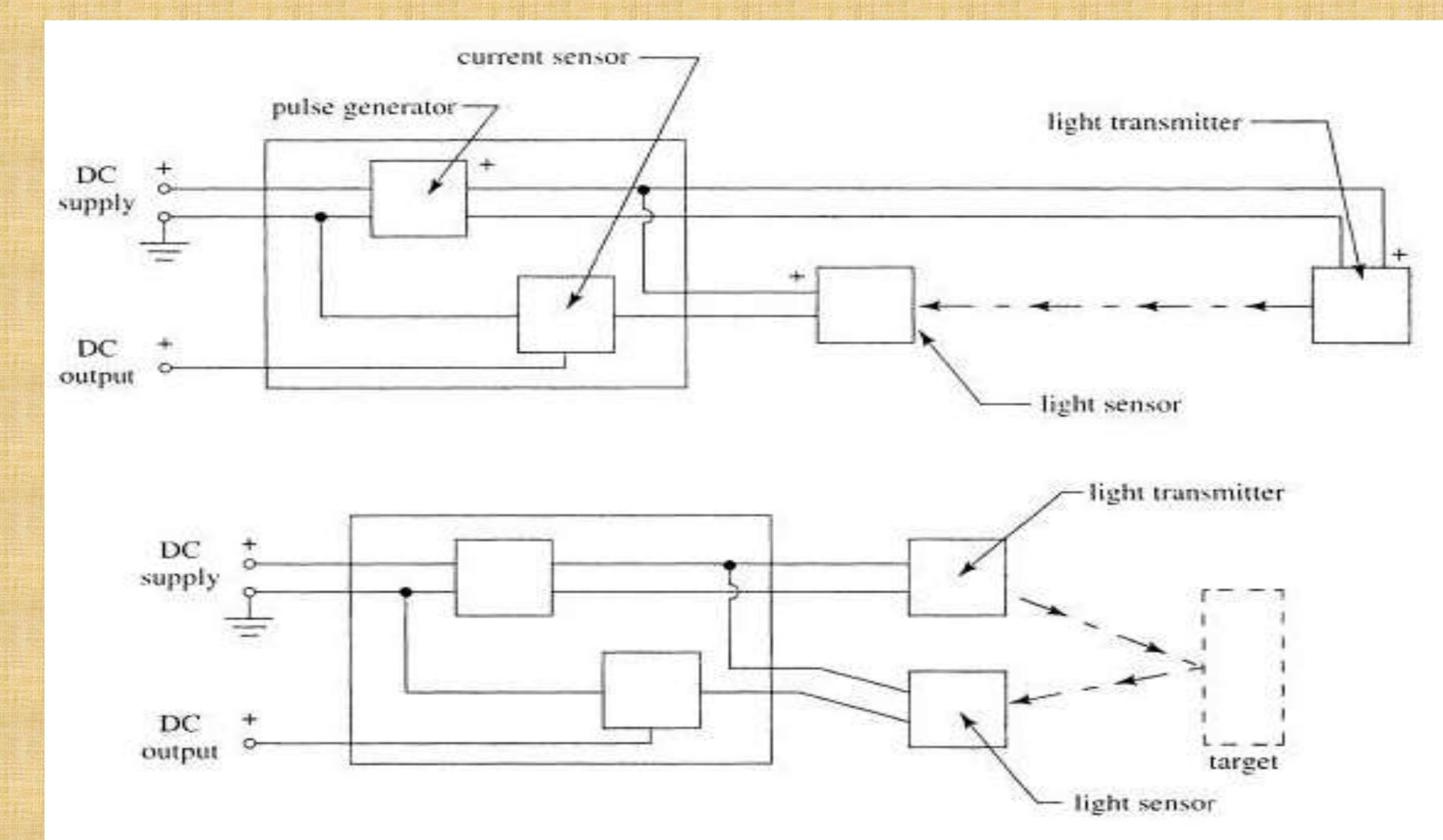








Optical Proximity Sensors

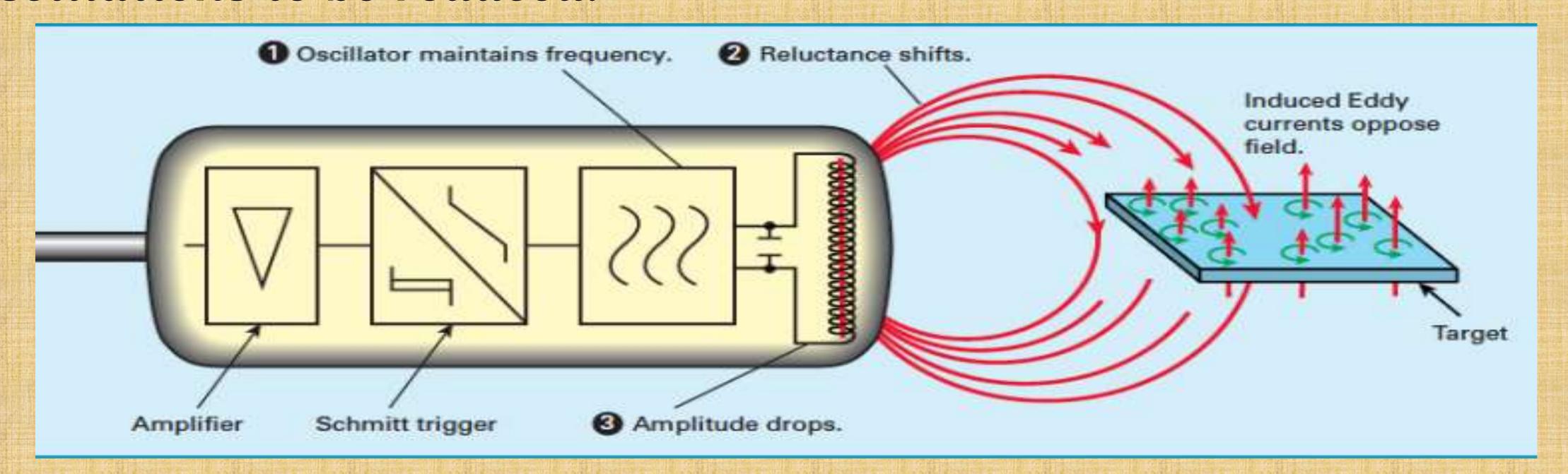


Inductive Proximity sensors

✓ The coil generates a magnetic field that extends out the face of the sensor.



✓If a metal object moves into the field, change the reluctance of magnetic circuit system oscillation frequency, eddy currents are induced in the object, causing the magnitude of the coil oscillations to be reduced.



Inductive Proximity sensors

✓ A sturdy self-contained device that can detect the presence of all metals at relatively close range (under an inch)

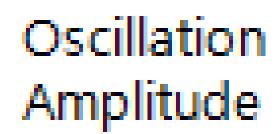
Advantages

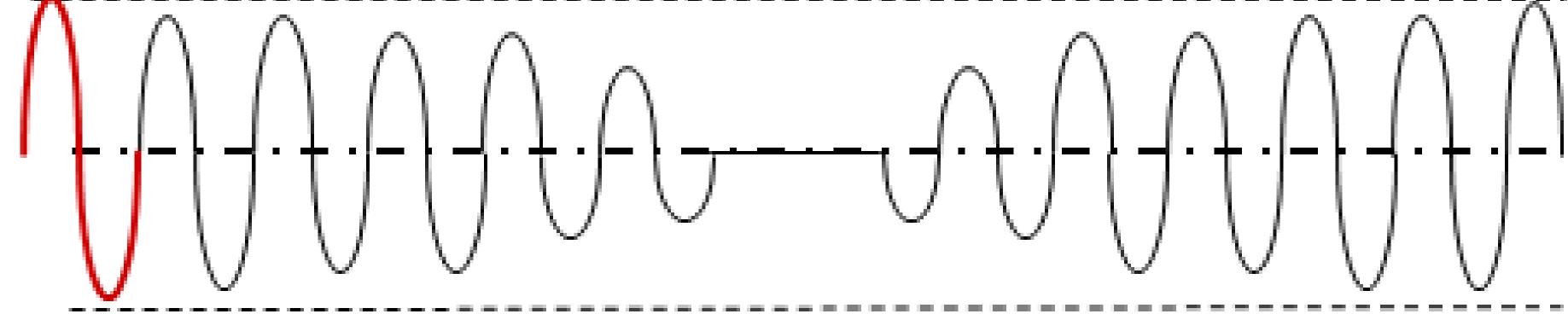
- 1. They are very accurate compared to other technologies.
- 2. Have high switching rate.
- 3. Can work in harsh environmental conditions.

Disadvantages

- 1. It can detect only metallic target.
- 2. Operating range may be limited.

Sensor



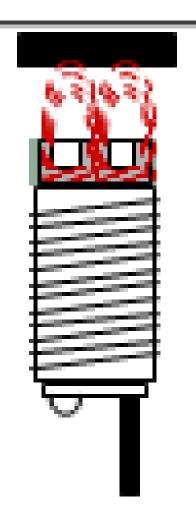


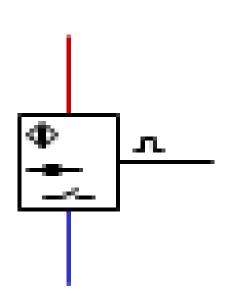
Sensor output signal

ON

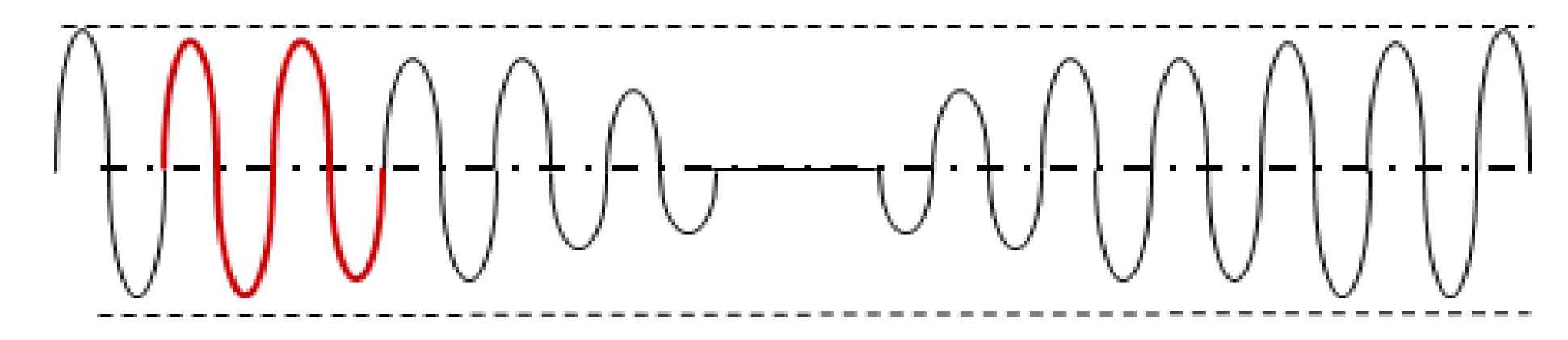


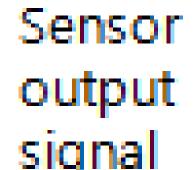
Sensor





Oscillation Amplitude

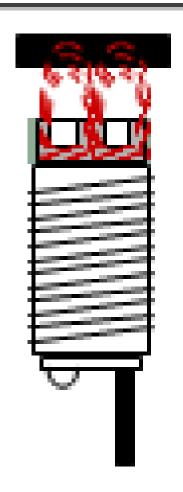


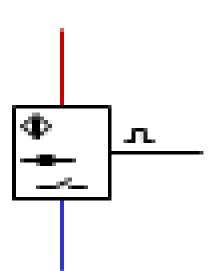


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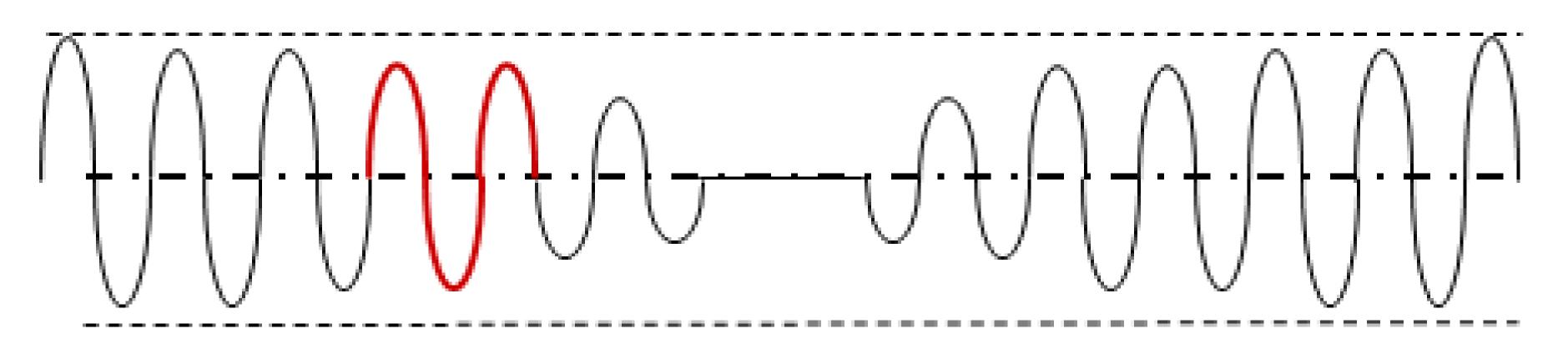


Sensor





Oscillation Amplitude

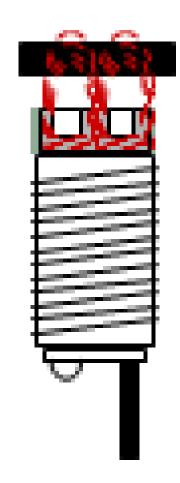


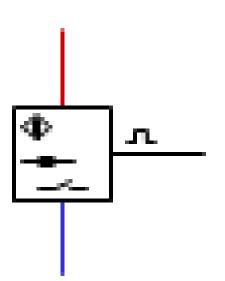
Sensor output signal

ON

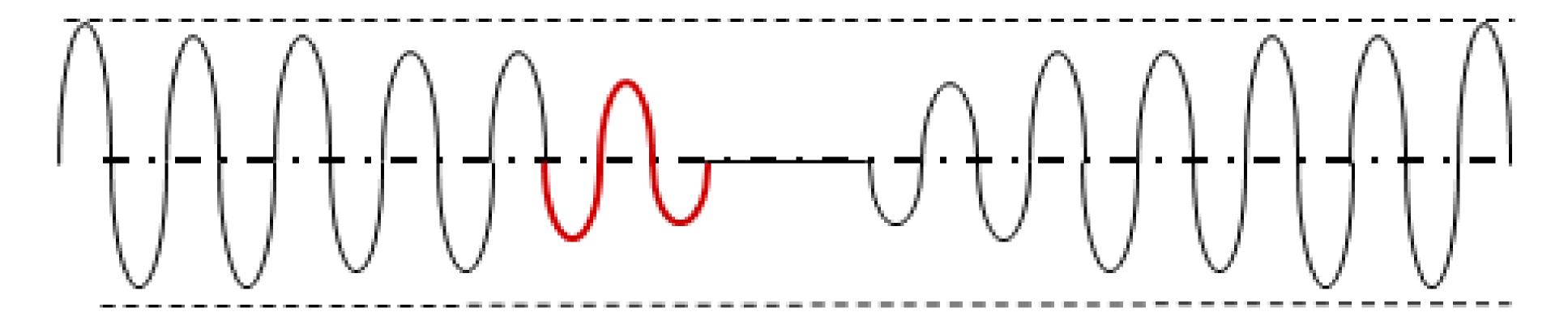


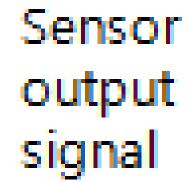
Sensor





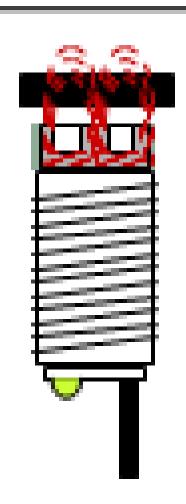
Oscillation Amplitude

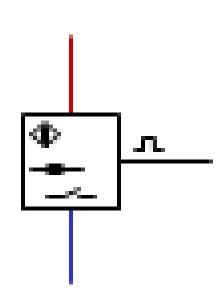


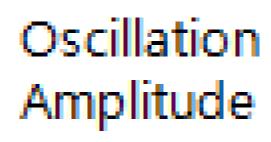


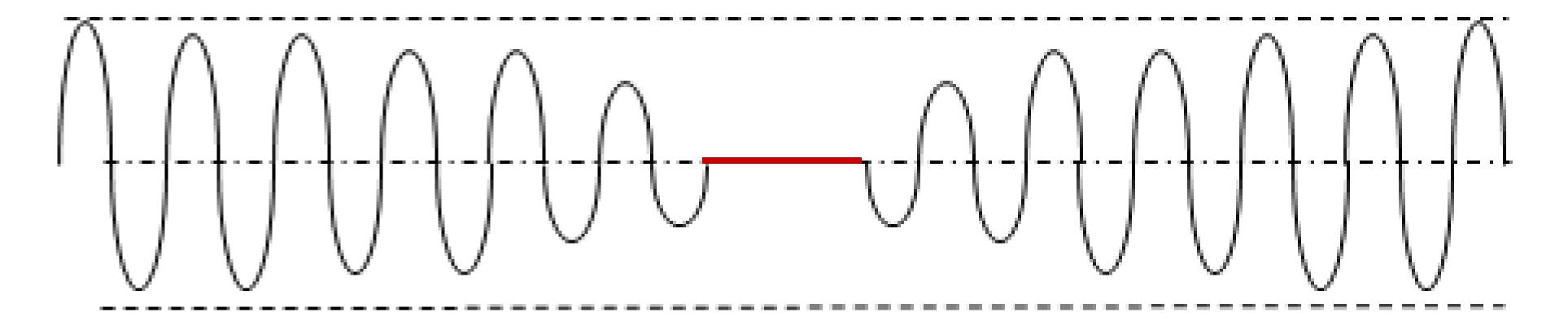


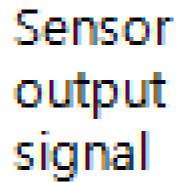
Sensor







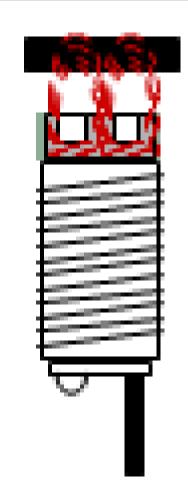


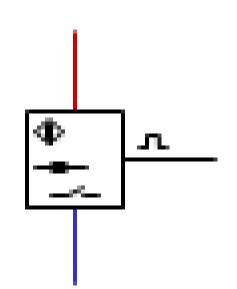




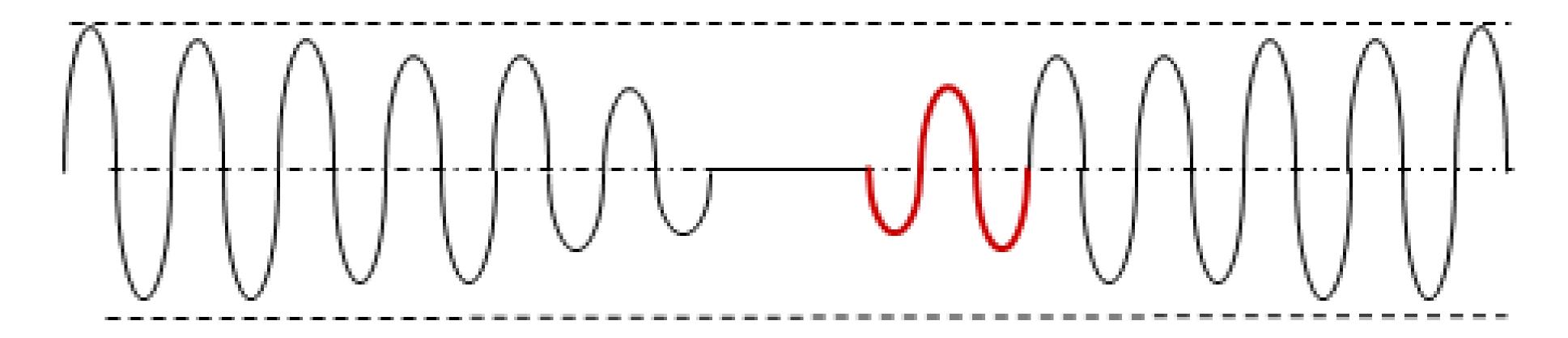


Sensor





Oscillation Amplitude

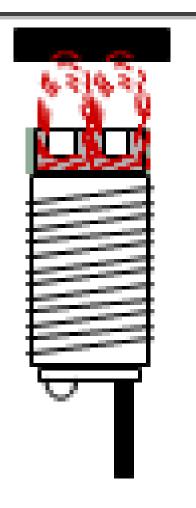


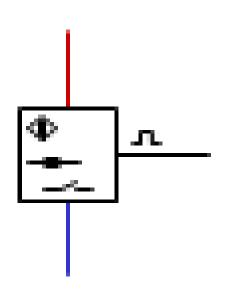


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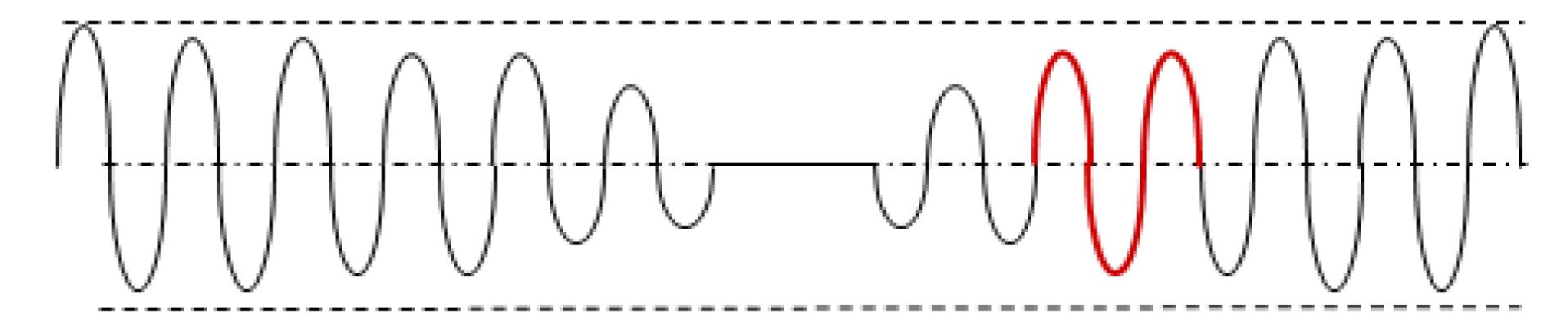


Sensor





Oscillation Amplitude



Sensor output signal

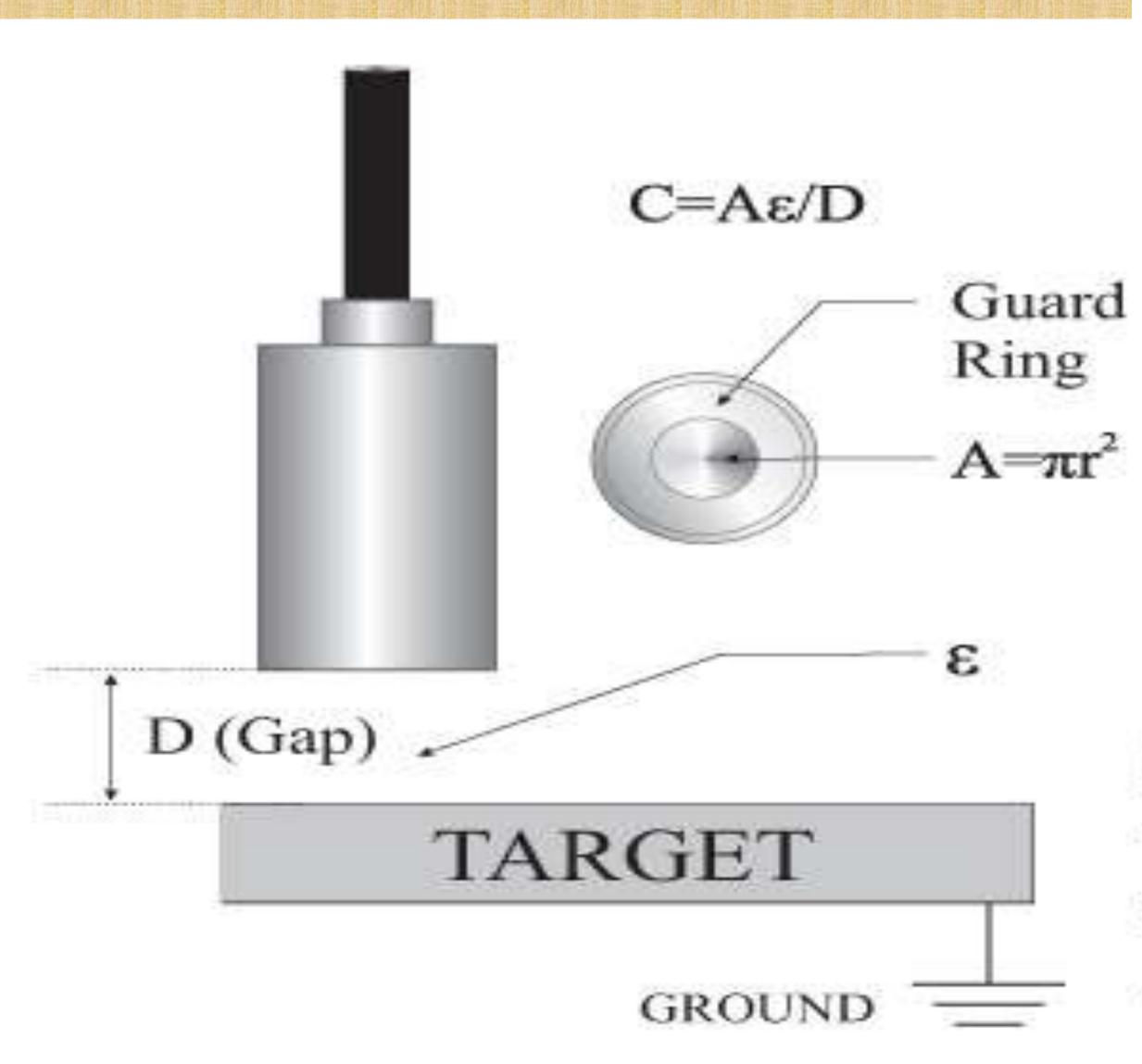
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Capacitive Proximity sensors

- ✓ The sensing surface of the sensor's probe is the electrified plate.
- ✓ The sensor electronics continually changes the *voltage* on the probe surface
- ✓ The amount of current required change this voltage is measured which indicates the amount of capacitance distance between the probe and target.
- ✓ Capacitive sensing is a noncontact technology suitable for detecting metals, nonmetals, solids, and liquids, although it is best suited for nonmetallic targets because of its characteristics and cost relative to inductive proximity sensors. In most applications with metallic targets, inductive sensing is preferred because it is both a reliable and a more affordable technology.

Capacitive Proximity sensors

generate an electrostatic field

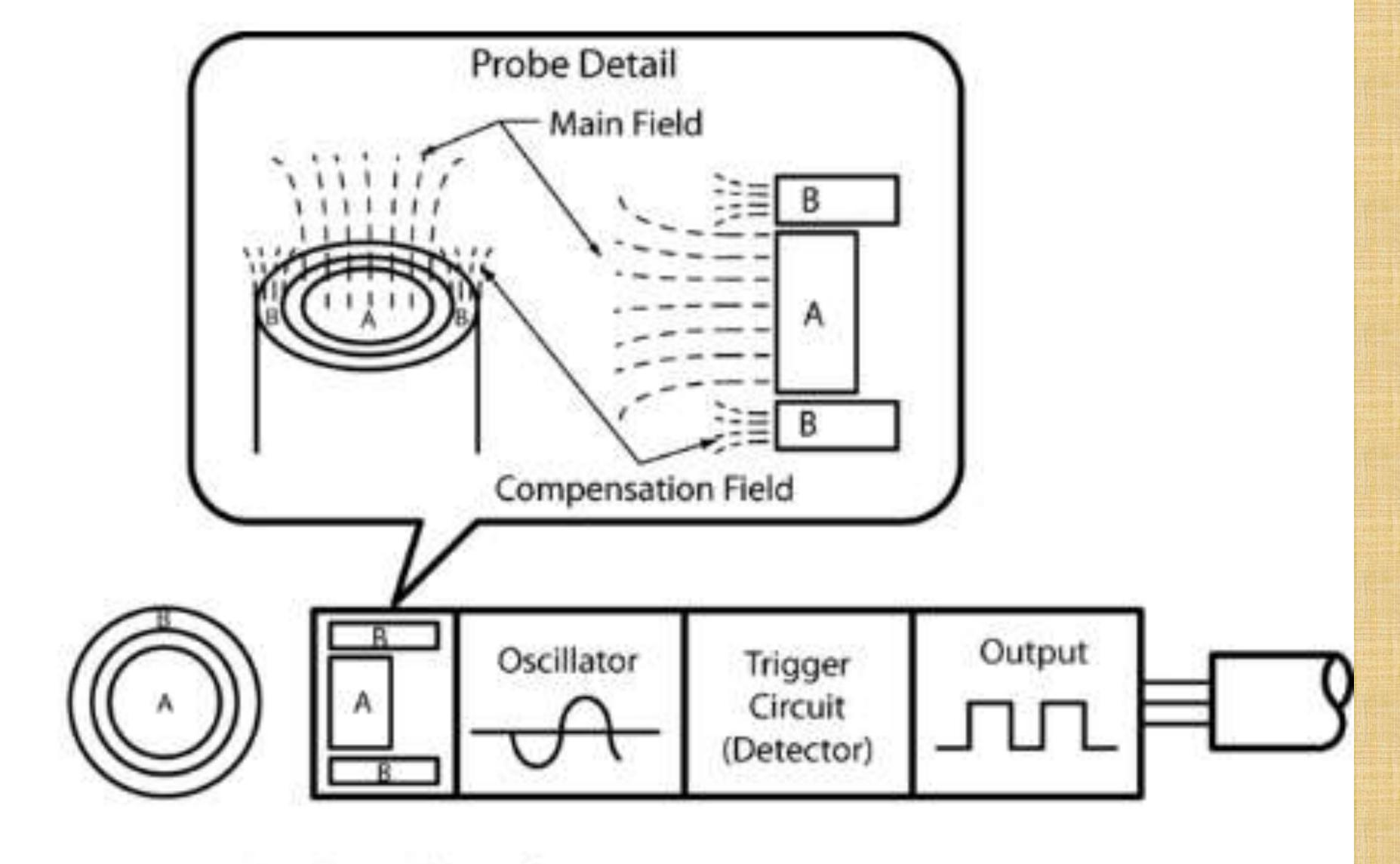


Dielectric Constants of Common Industrial Materials

Material	Constant	Material	Constant
Acetone	19.5	Perspex	3.23.5
Acrylic Resin	2.74.5	Petroleum	2.02.2
Air	1.000264	Phenol Resin	412
Alcohol	25.8	Polyacetal	3.63.7
Ammonia	1525	Polyamide	5.0
Aniline	6.9	Polyester Resin	2.88.1
Aqueous Solutions	5080	Polyethylene	2.3
Bakelite	3.6	Polypropylene	2.02.3
Benzene	2.3	Polystyrene	3.0
Carbon Dioxide	1.000985	Polyvinyl Chloride Resin	2.83.1
Carbon Tetrachloride	2.2	Porcelain	4.47

Where:

- C=Capacitance
- E Dielectric constant of the gap medium, typically air
- D= Gap distance between the probe and grounded target
- A- Probe sensing area



Front View

A = Sensor Electrodes

B = Compensator Electrodes

(Unshielded Sensors)

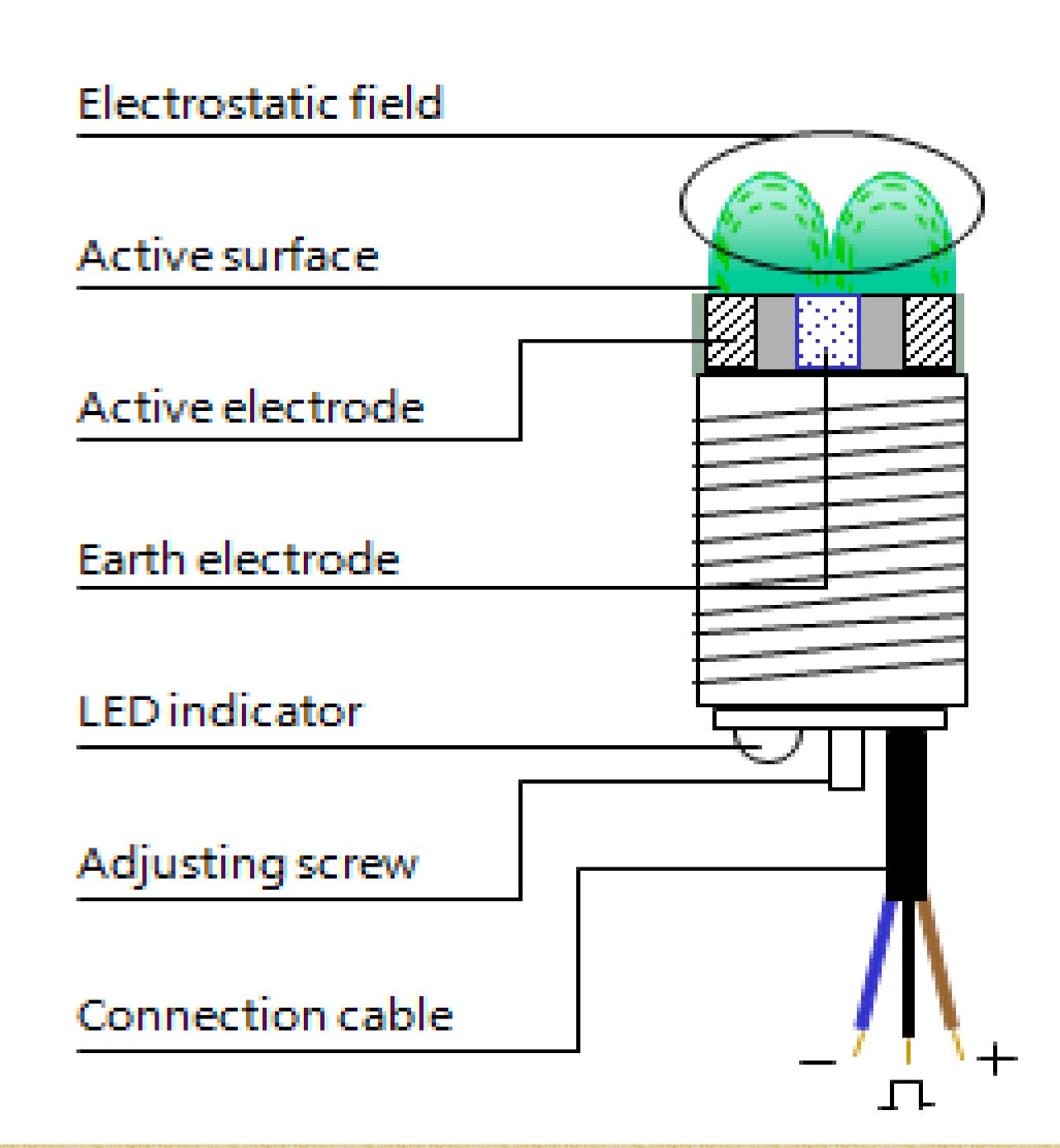
Capacitive sensor components

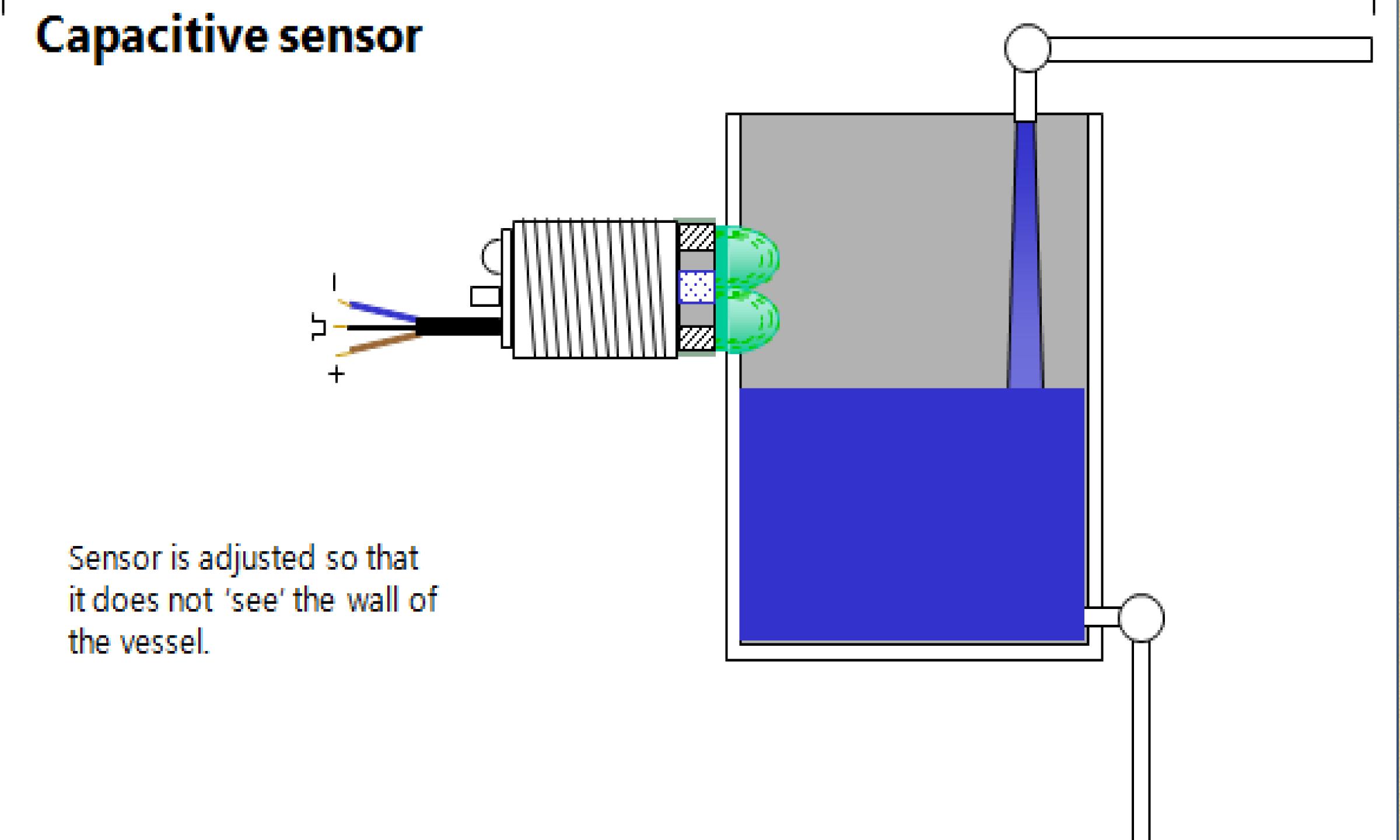
Working-

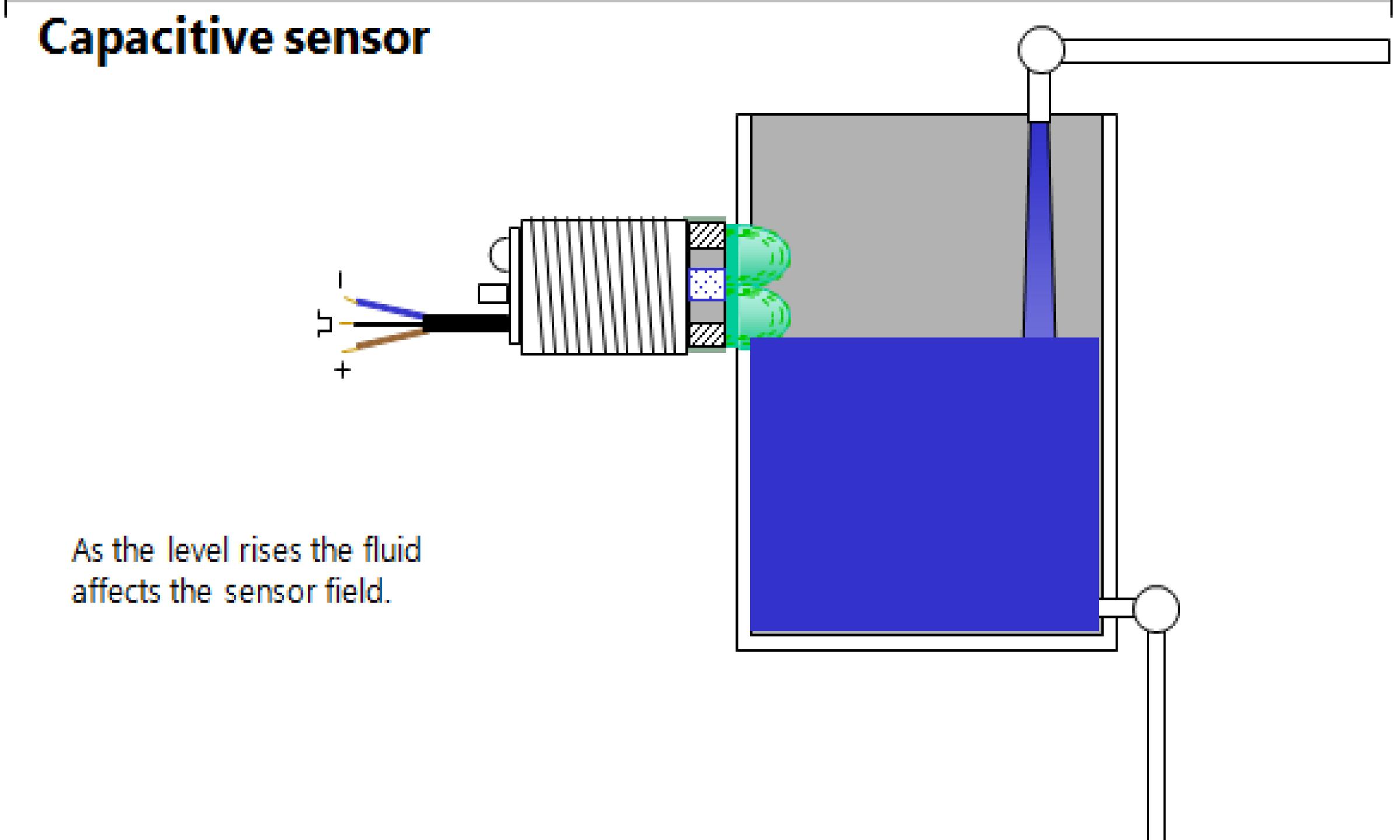
- ✓ Capacitive proximity sensors are similar in size, shape, and concept to inductive proximity sensors. However, unlike inductive sensors which use induced magnetic fields to sense objects, capacitive proximity generate an electrostatic field and reacts to changes in capacitance caused when a target enters the electrostatic field.
- ✓When the target is outside the electrostatic field, the oscillator is inactive. As the target approaches, a capacitive coupling develops between the target and the capacitive probe.
- ✓When the capacitance reaches a specified threshold, the oscillator is activated, triggering the output circuit to switch states between ON and OFF
- ✓The ability of the sensor to detect the target is determined by the target's size, dielectric constant and distance from the sensor.
- ✓The larger the target's size, the stronger the capacitive coupling between the probe and the target.
- ✓ Materials with higher dielectric constants are easier to detect than those with lower values.
- ✓The shorter the distance between target and probe, the stronger the capacitive coupling between the probe and the target.

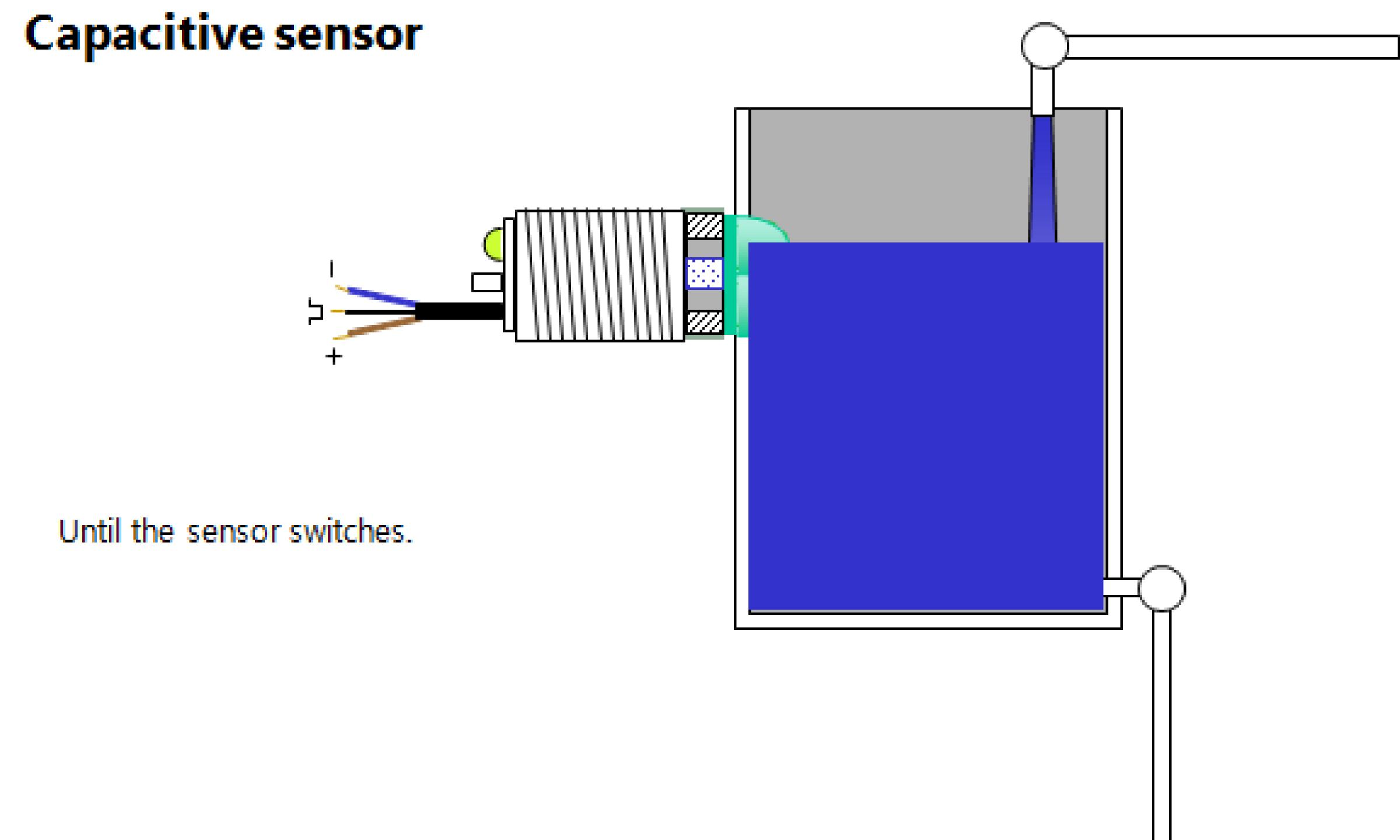
Capacitive sensor

Sensor is looking for a change in capacitance in the active field









Advantages

- 1. Detects metal and nonmetal, liquids and solids
- 2. Can "see through" certain materials (product boxes)
- 3. Solid-state, long life
- 4. Many mounting configurations

Disadvantages

- 1. Short (1 inch or less) sensing distance varies widely according to material being sensed
- 2. Very sensitive to environmental factors humidity in coastal/water climates can affect sensing output
- 3. Not at all selective for its target control of what comes close to the sensor is essential

Typical Applications-

1. Liquid level sensing

Sensing through a sight glass to watch liquid level, such as batter for food processing or ink for printing applications
Insertion through sealed tubes into drums or holding tanks for chemicals or aqueous solutions

2. Product filling lines

Bottling applications, such as shampoo
Full-case detection to ensure that a container has the required
number of products
Checking material levels, such as cereal in boxes

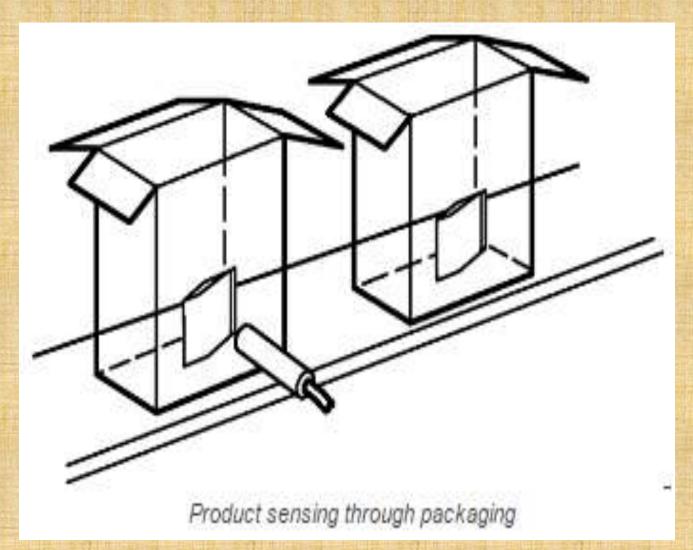
3. Plastic parts detection

Plastics on product packages, such as spouts on laundry detergent boxes
Plastic materials within a hopper

4. Pallet detection for materials handling

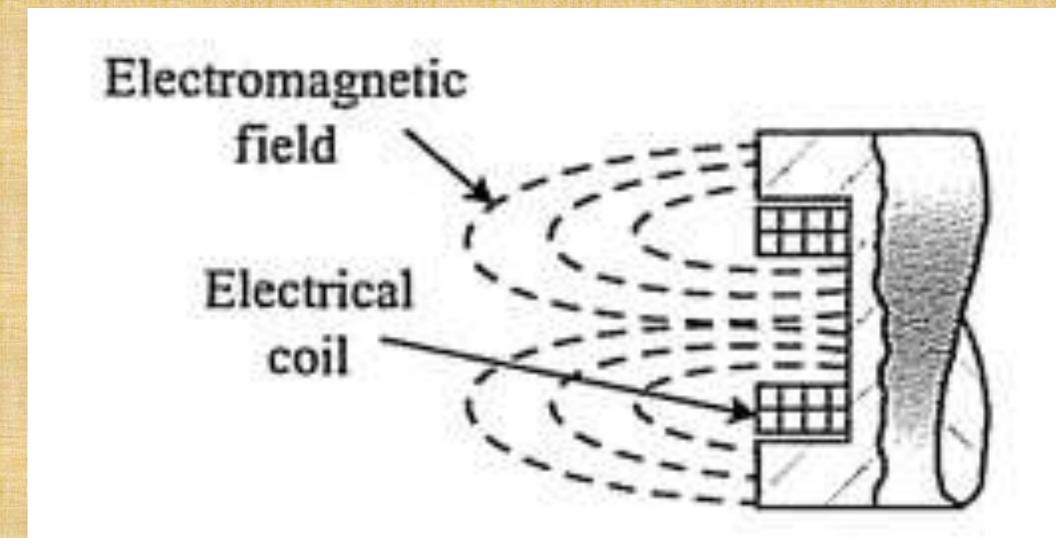
5. Irregularly shaped products

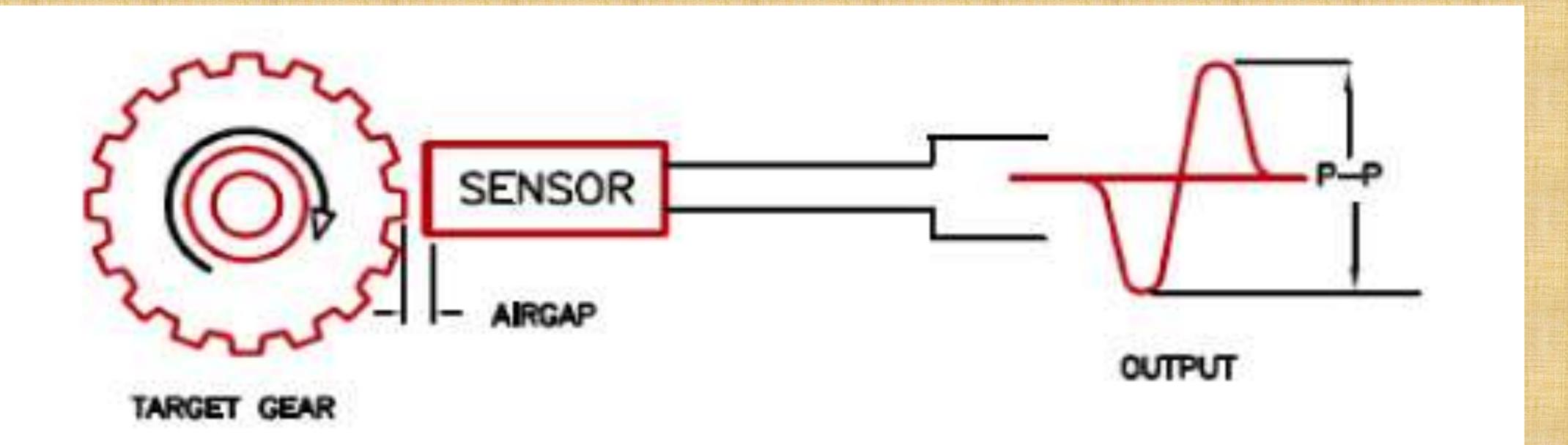
Objects randomly oriented on conveyor belt Highly textured objects



1. Motion Sensors- Variable Reluctance

- ✓ A magnet in the sensor creates a magnetic field
- As a ferrous object moves by the sensor, the resulting change in the magnetic flux induces an emf in the pickup coil





Working-

- ✓In its simplest form, a VR sensor consists of a coil of wire wound around a permanent-magnet armature.
- ✓The target of the sensor is typically a gear or other toothed ring made from ferrous materials.
- ✓As the ring rotates in front of the sensor, the teeth concentrate the magnetic flux when they align with the magnetic poles, but let the flux expand outward when the poles are over a gap between the teeth.
- ✓ The change in flux density created by the change of reluctance at the poles induces an electrical voltage in the coil, creating the output from the sensor.

Reluctance- the ability of a material to pass a magnetic field, and is often likened to resistance in an electrical circuit.

Ferrous materials possess a low reluctance as they help concentrate magnetic fields that easily pass through them.

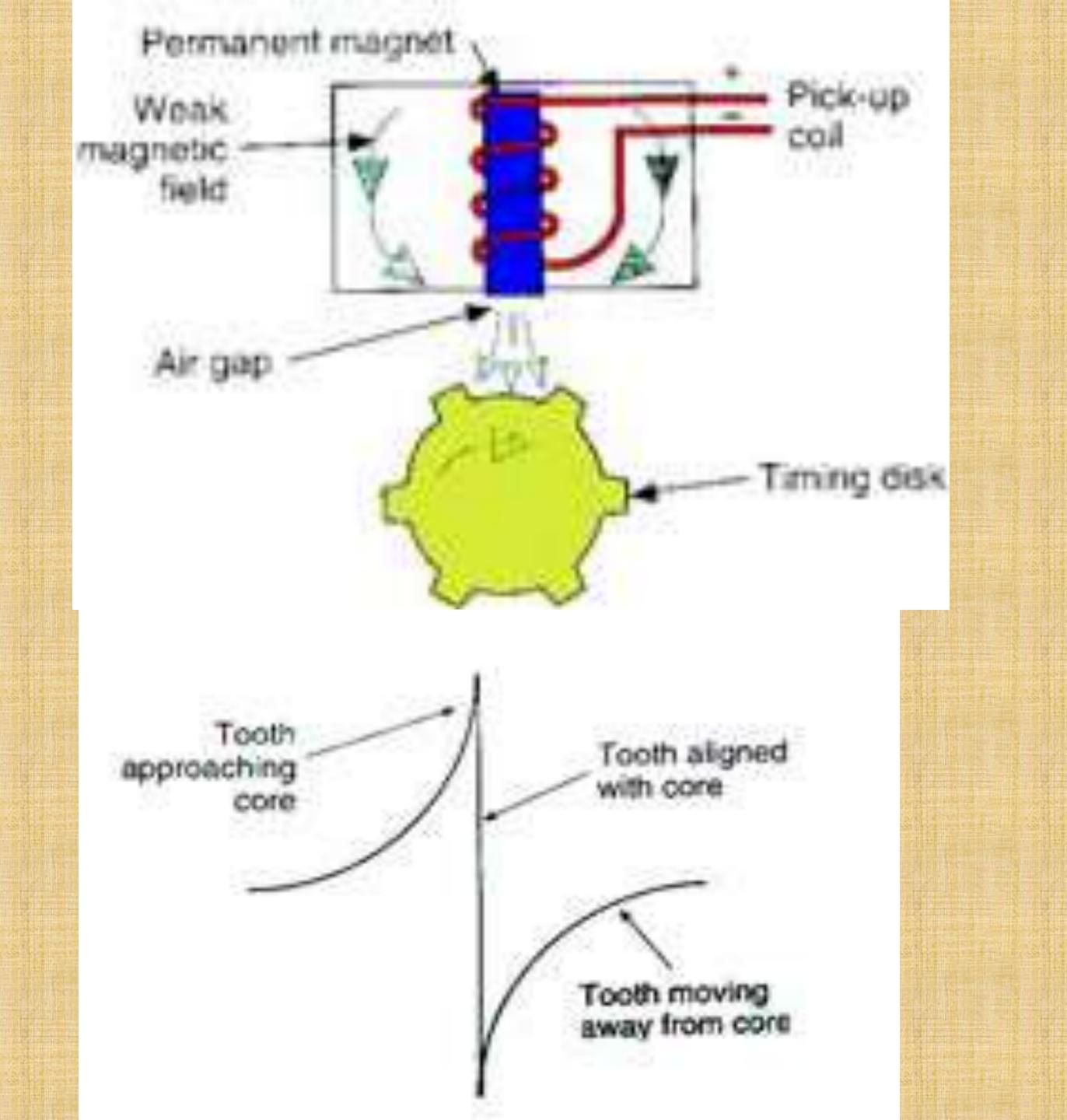
Mathematically, the equation for reluctance looks much like Ohm's Law:

$$R = mmf/\Phi$$

where R = value of reluctance, mmf = magnetomotive force in ampere-turns, and Φ = intensity of the magnetic field in Webers.

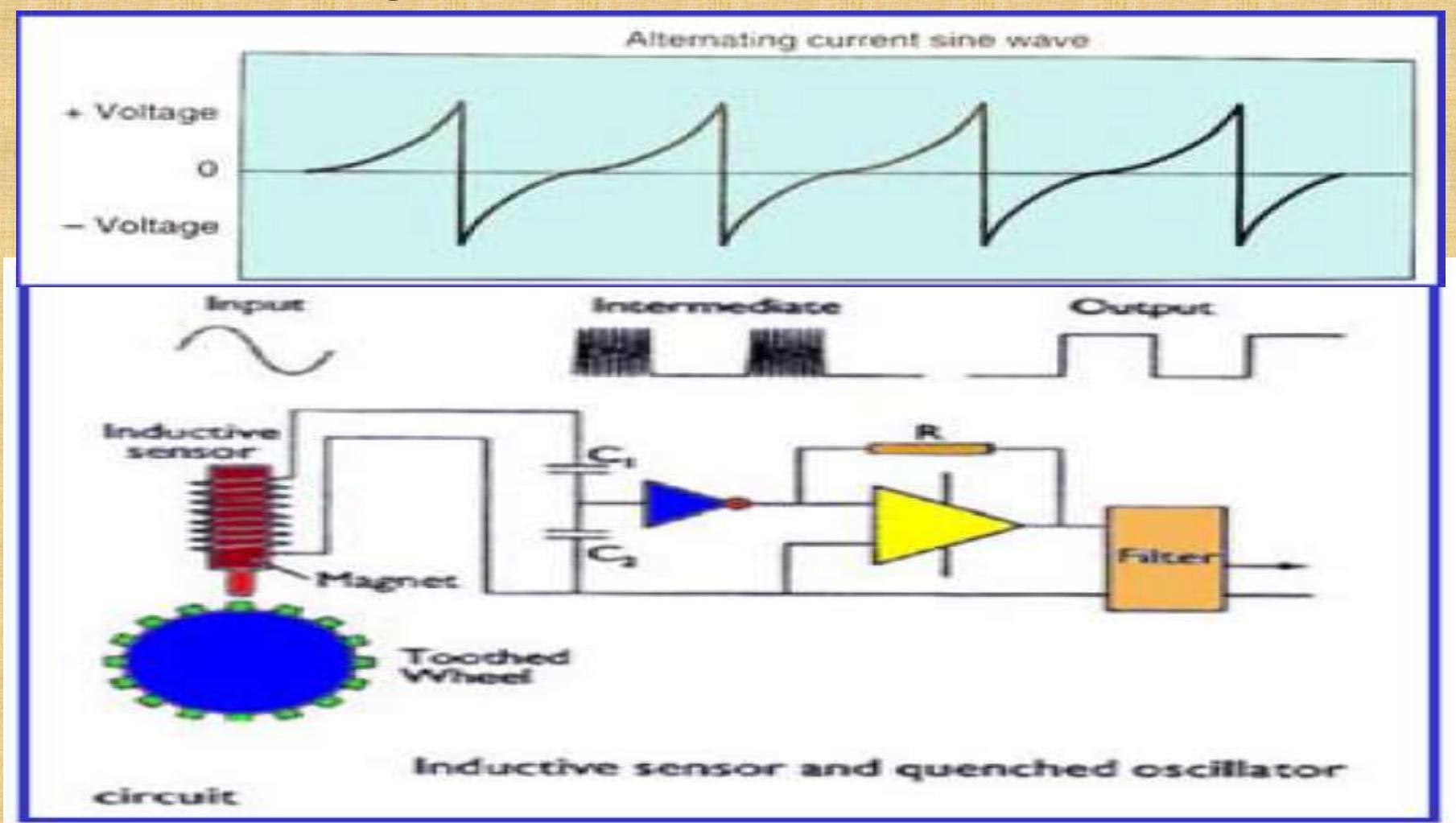
√The frequency of the output is controlled by the speed of rotation and the number of teeth in the target.

For example, a 100-tooth gear turning at 1,800 rpm generates an output frequency of 3,000 Hz.



A common method of converting this signal into a useful signal for interfacing with other digital circuit is by using a **Schmitt trigger circuit**.

• Another method is by using a *quenched oscillator circuit* as shown in the figure. This circuit has good resistance to interference



Applications

- ✓ Used to measure speed and/or position of a moving metallic object
- ✓ A VR sensor used as a simple proximity sensor can determine the position of a mechanical link in a piece of industrial equipment.
- ✓ A Crankshaft position sensor (in an automobile engine) is used to provide the angular position of the crankshaft to the Engine control unit. The Engine control unit can then calculate engine speed (angular velocity).
- ✓ The Engine control unit or Transmission control unit (depending on the particular automobile) uses these sensors to determine when to shift from one gear to the next.

Temperature measurement

1. EMF based

eg- Thermocouple

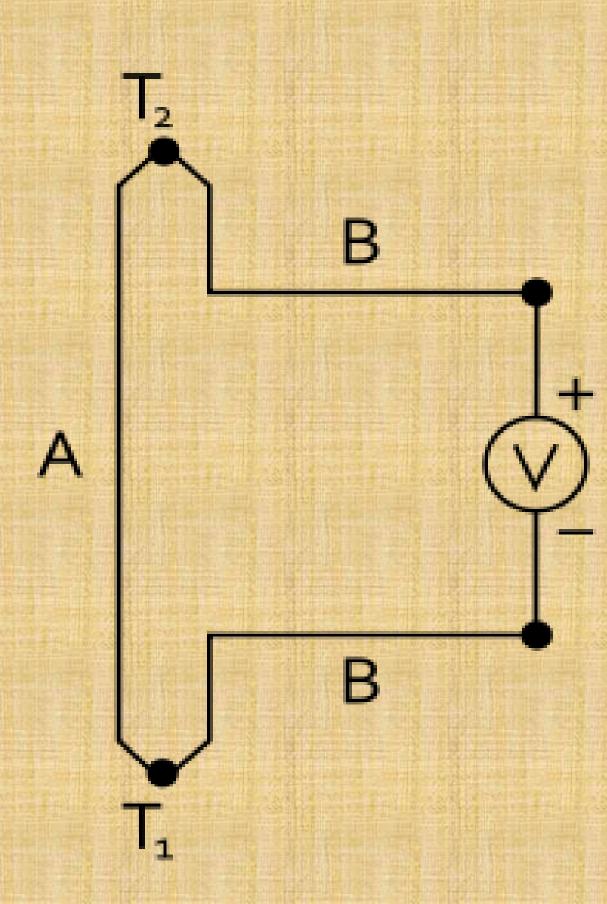
2. Resistance based

eg-Resistance Temperature Detectors (RTD)

Thermocouples

- Based on the <u>Seebeck effect</u> a phenomenon whereby a voltage that is almost proportional to temperature can be produced from a circuit consisting of two dissimilar metal wires
- The junctions at each end of the dissimilar metal wires produce a voltage
- One junction is called the hot junction (the junction on the probe) and the other junction is the cold junction (kept at some known reference temperature
- The actual difference between the junction voltages is known as Vnet, which is essentially the output voltage of this system.

$$V_{net} = V_{hot} - V_{cold}$$



A thermocouple made from iron and constantan (an alloy) generates a voltage of approximately $35\mu V/^{\circ}F$

Construction of Thermocouples

- ✓ At the tip of a *grounded junction* probe, the thermocouple wires are physically attached to the inside of the probe wall. This results in good heat transfer from the outside, through the probe wall to the thermocouple junction.
- ✓ In an *ungrounded probe*, the thermocouple junction is detached from the probe wall. Response time is slower than the grounded style, but the ungrounded offers electrical isolation
- ✓ The thermocouple in the *exposed junction* style protrudes out of the tip of the sheath and is exposed to the surrounding environment. This type offers the best response time, but is limited in use to dry, non-corrosive and non-pressurized applications.

Grounded Exposed Ungrounded

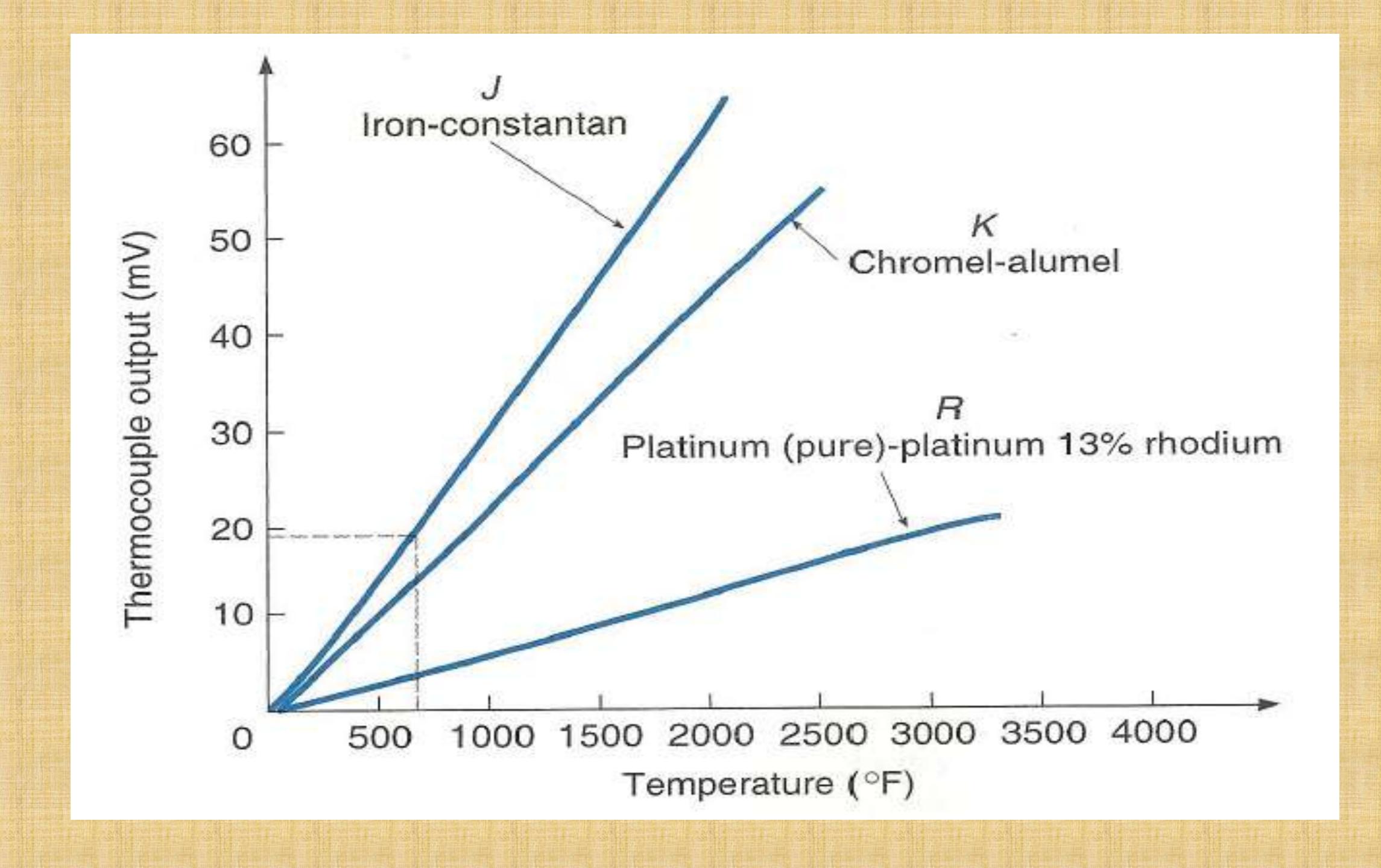
Selection of Thermocouples

The following criteria are used in selecting a thermocouple:

- Temperature range
- Chemical resistance of the thermocouple or sheath material
- Abrasion and vibration resistance
- Installation requirements (may need to be compatible with existing equipment; existing holes may determine probe diameter)

Types of Thermocouple

- **Type B** very poor below 50°C; reference junction temperature not important since voltage output is about the same from 0 to 42 °C
- **Type E** good for low temperatures since dV/dT is high for low Temperatures
- **Type J** cheap because one wire is iron; high sensitivity but also high uncertainty (iron impurities cause inaccuracy)
- **Type T** good accuracy but low max temperature (400 °C); one lead is copper, making connections easier; watch for heat being conducted along the copper wire, changing your surface temp
- Type K popular type since it has decent accuracy and a wide temperature range; some instability (drift) over time
- **Type N** most stable over time when exposed to elevated temperatures for long periods



Properties of Thermocouple:

- 1 The temp and e.m.f relation should be linear and reproducible
- 2 It should be strong for withstand high temp.
- 4 It should maintain its calibration without drift for long period of time.
- 5 Cost should be reasonable
- 6 It should have long life

Advantages of Thermocouple:

- 1. Better response
- 2. Higher range of temperature measurements
- 3. Sensing element can be easily installed
- 4. Inexpensive
- 5. Very convenient for measuring the temp. at one particular point in a piece of appratus.

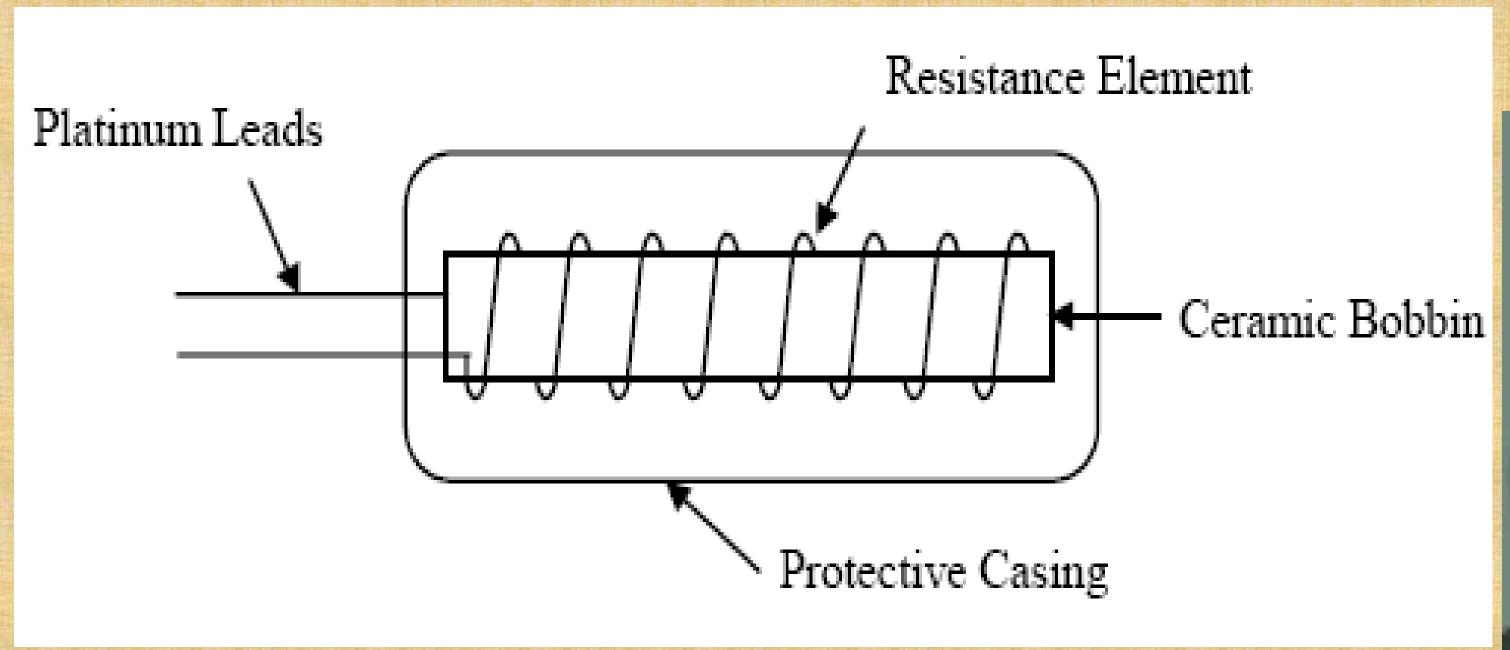
Disadvantages of Thermocouple:

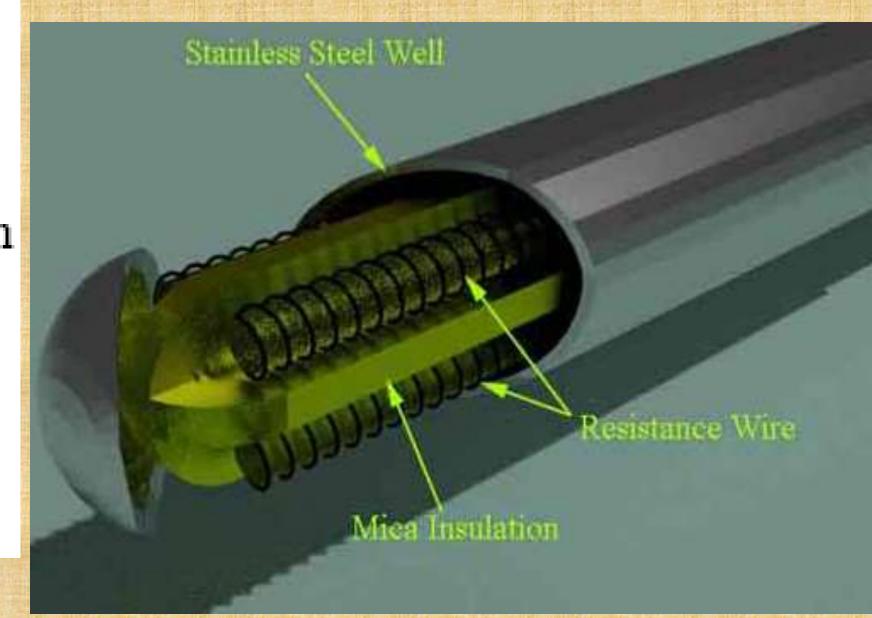
- 1. Low accuracy
- 2. Circuit is very complex
- 3. For long life they need to be amply protected.

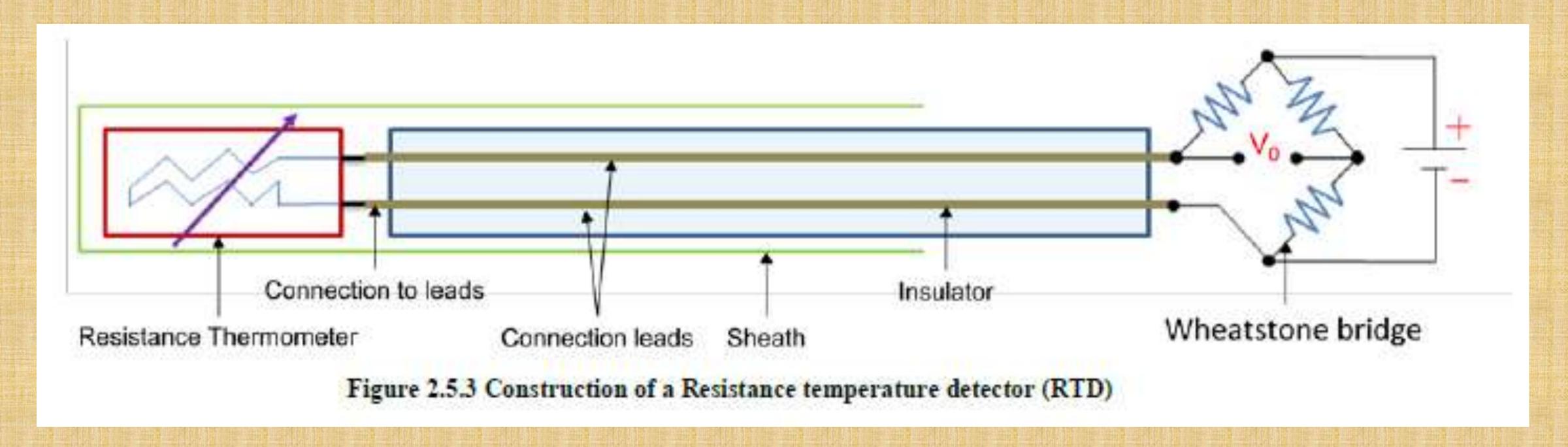
Resistance Temperature Detectors (RTD)

✓The *RTD*s use the phenomenon that the *resistance of a metal changes with temperature*. They are, however, linear over a wide range and most stable.

√Typically, a wire (usually a platinum wire) is wrapped around a ceramic or glass rod







Construction of Resistance Temperature Detector or RTD

- ✓The construction is typically such that the wire is wound on a form (in a coil) on notched mica cross frame to achieve small size, improving the thermal conductivity to decrease the response time and a high rate of heat transfer is obtained.
- ✓ In the industrial RTD's, the coil is protected by a stainless steel sheath or a protective tube. So that, the physical strain is negligible as the wire expands and increase the length of wire with the temperature change.
- ✓ If the strain on the wire is increasing, then the tension increases. Due to that, the resistance of the wire will change which is undesirable. So, we don't want to change the resistance of wire by any other unwanted changes except the temperature changes. This is also useful to RTD maintenance while the plant is in operation.
- ✓ Mica is placed in between the steel sheath and resistance wire for better electrical insulation. Due less strain in resistance wire, it should be carefully wound over mica sheet

The relationship between temperature and resistance of conductors in the temperature range near 0°C can be calculated from the equation:

$$R_t = R_0 (1 + \alpha \Delta t)$$

Rt=the resistance of the conductor at temperature t (°C)

 R_0 = the resistance at the reference temperature, usually 20°C

α = the temperature coefficient of resistance

 ΔT = the difference between the operating and the reference temperature

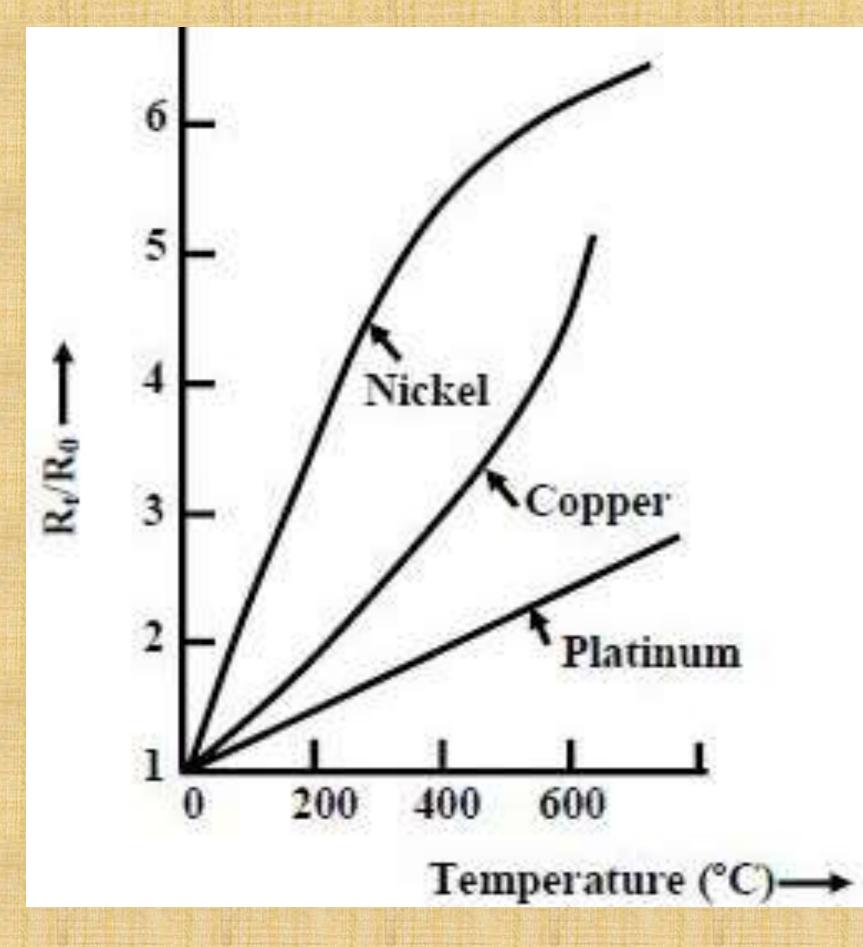


Illustration wire has a temperature coefficient of 0.0039 $\Omega/\Omega/C$, which means that the resistance goes up 0.0039 Ω for each ohm of wire for each Celsius degree of temperature rise

✓Therefore, a 100-platinum RTD has a resistance of 100 Ω at 0°C, and it has a positive temperature coefficient of 0.39 Ω /°C

Advantages of platinum as RTD

- 1. The temperature-resistance characteristics of pure platinum are stable over a wide range of temperatures.
- 2. It has high resistance to chemical attack and contamination
- 3. It forms the most easily reproducible type of temperature transducer with a high degree of accuracy.
- 4. It can have accuracy ± 0.01 °C up to 500 °C and ± 0.1 °C up to 1200 °C.
- 5. Linearity over a wide operating range

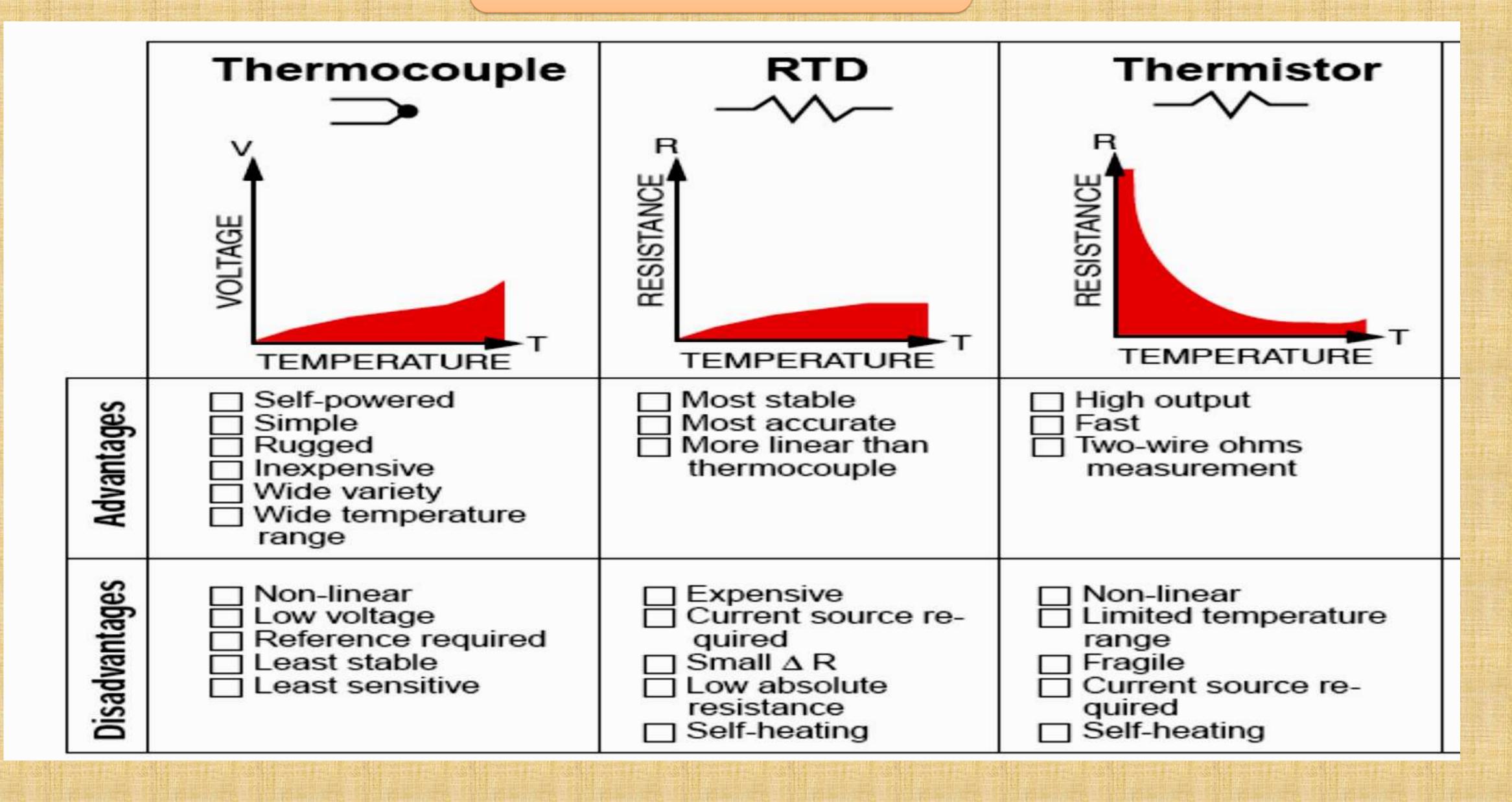
Limitations of RTD

- 1. These are resistive devices, and accordingly they function by passing a current through a sensor.
- 2. Even though only a very small current is generally employed, it creates a certain amount of heat and thus can throw off the temperature reading.
- 3. This self heating in resistive sensors can be significant when dealing with a still fluid (i.e., one that is neither flowing nor agitated), because there is less carry-off of the heat generated.
- 4. This problem does not arise with thermocouples, which are essentially zerocurrent devices.
- 5.Low sensitivity
- 6.It can be affected by contact resistance, shock and vibration
- 7. No point sensing
- 8. Higher cost than other temperature transducers
- 9.Requires 3 or 4 wire for its operation and associated instrumentation to eliminate errors due to lead resistance

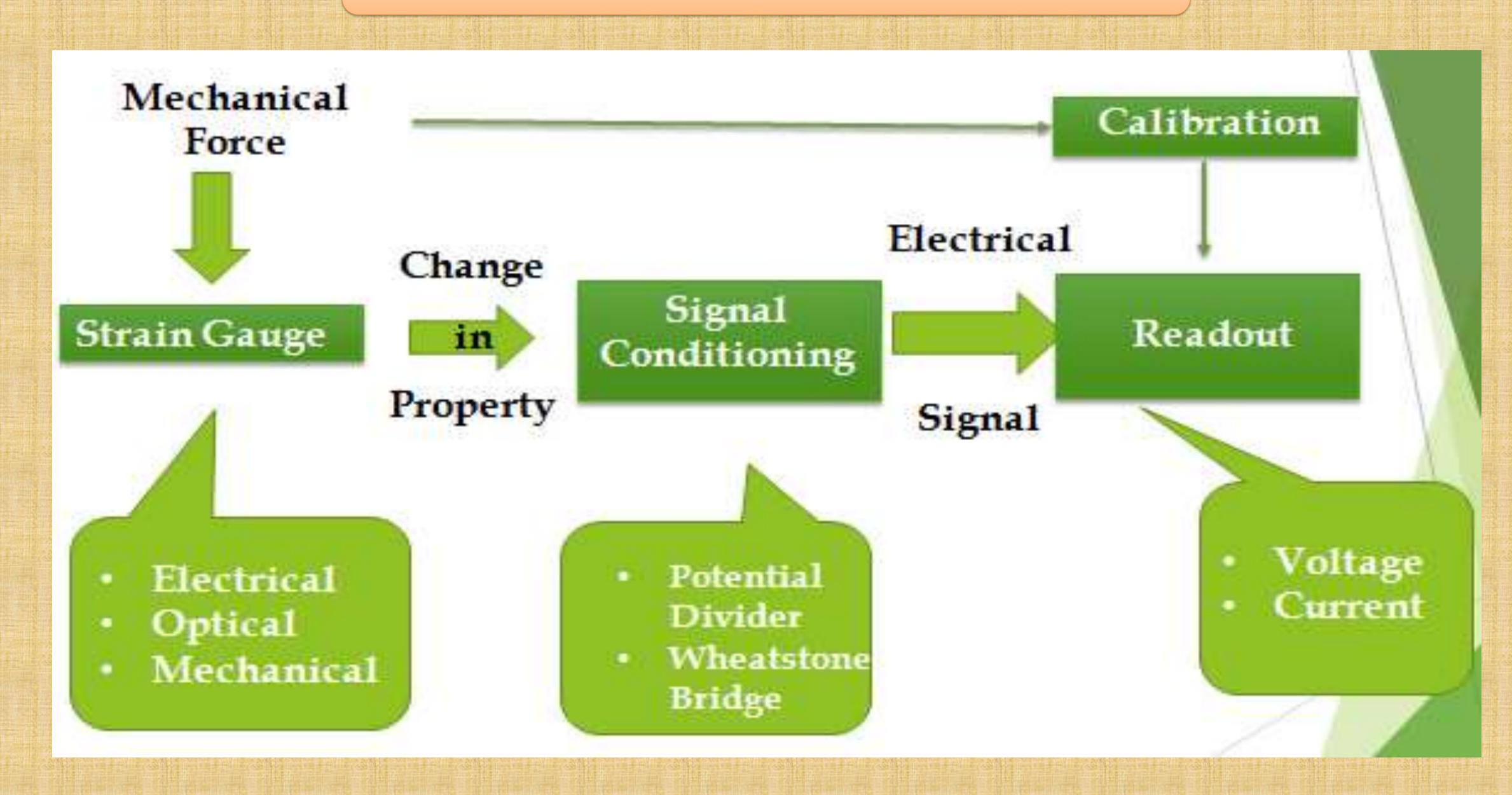
Applications of Resistance Temperature Detectors

- 1. Air conditioning and refrigeration servicing
- 2. Food Processing
- 3. Stoves and grills
- 4. Textile production
- 5. Plastics processing
- 6. Petrochemical processing
- 7. Micro electronics
- 8. Air, gas and liquid temperature measurement
- 9. Exhaust gas temperature measurement

Comparison

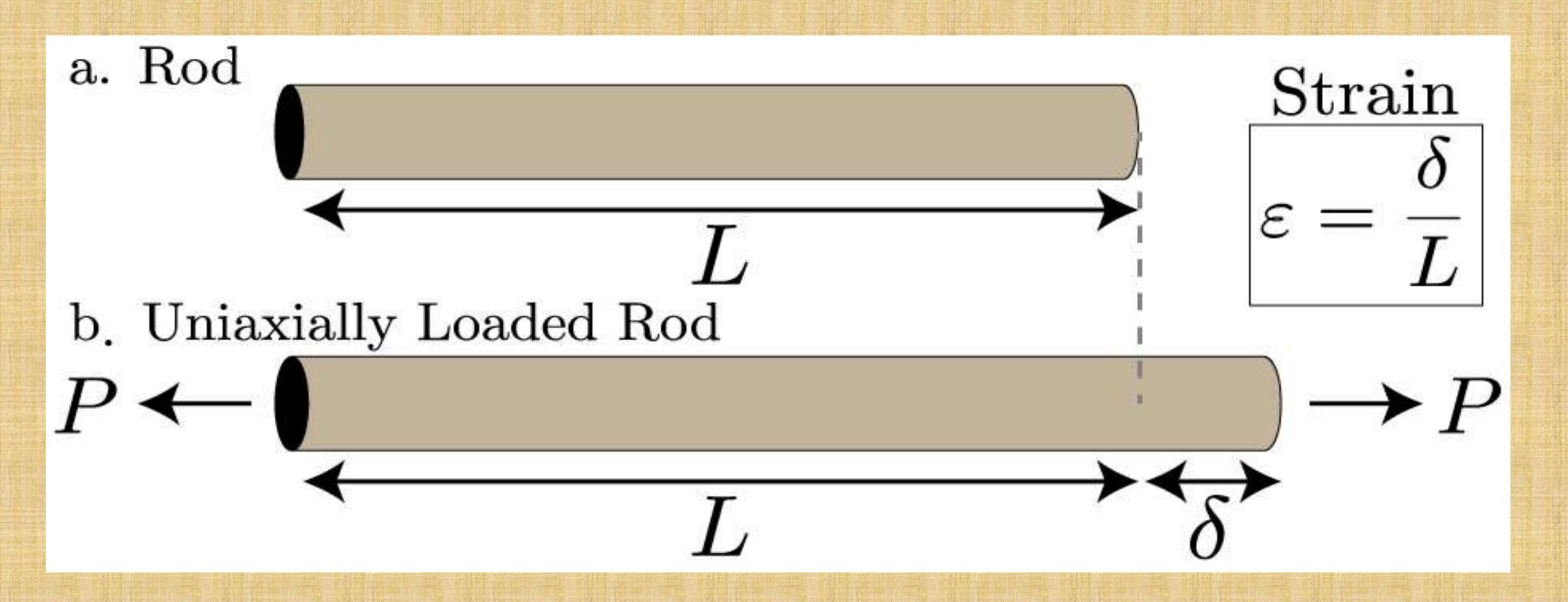


Force/Pressure Sensor



Force/Pressure Sensor

- ✓ Stress measurement using strain
- ✓ Strain is change in length (dl) per unit length (l)
- ✓ Strain gauge is primary sensing element used in pressure, force and position sensors

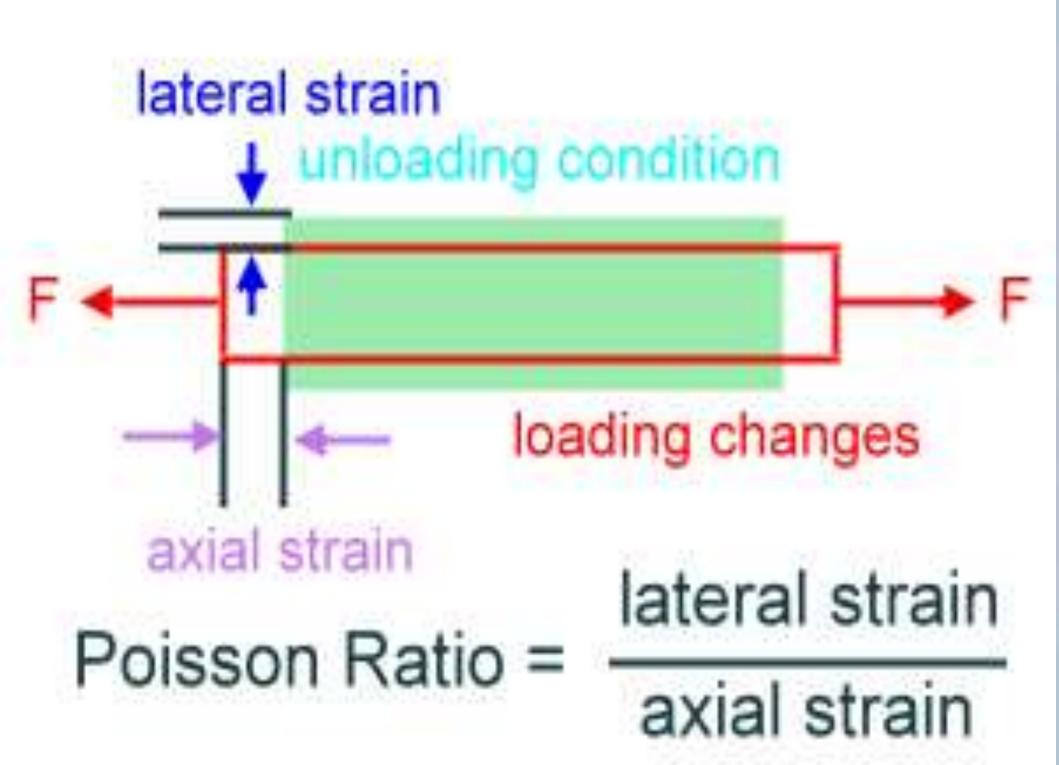


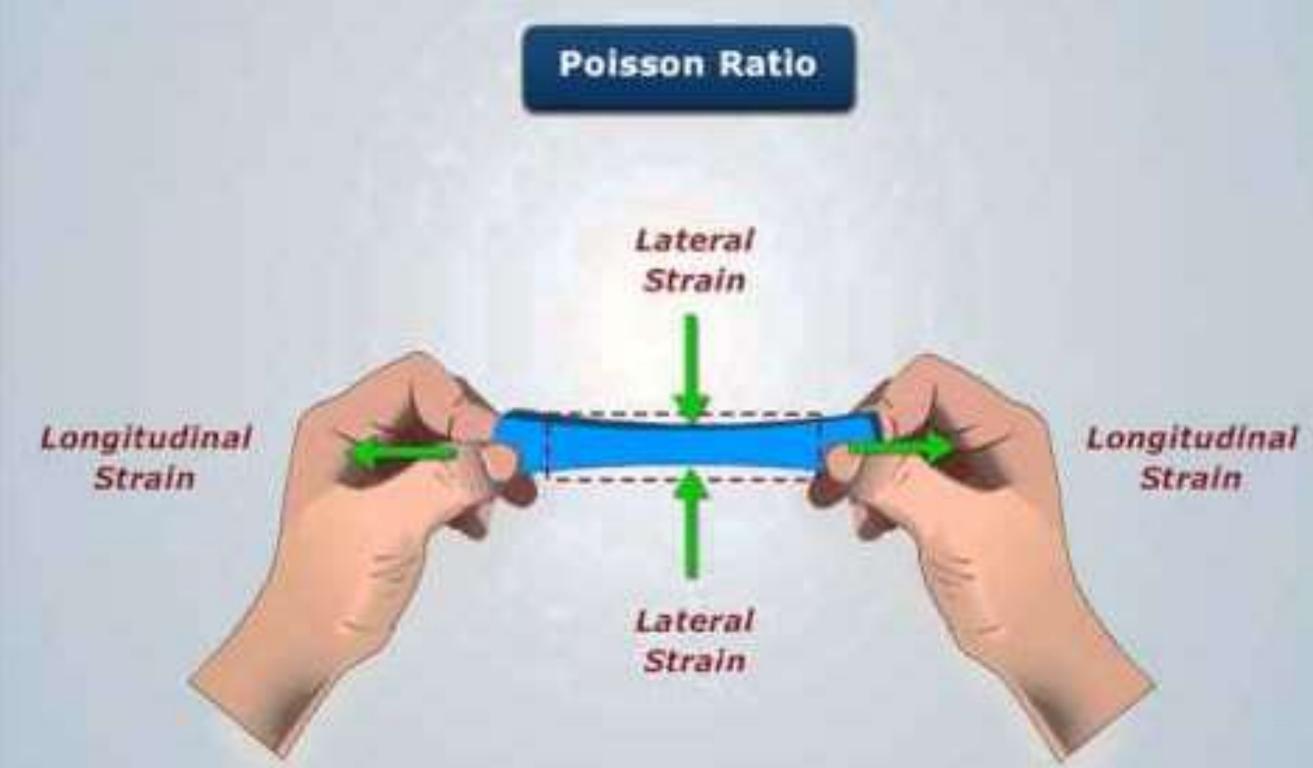
Young's Modulus or Modulus of Elasticity

Hooke's law: states that when a material is loaded within elastic limit, the stress is directly proportional to strain,

$$\sigma \propto \varepsilon$$
 or $\sigma = E \times \varepsilon$

$$E = \frac{\sigma}{\varepsilon} = \frac{P \times 1}{A \times \delta 1}$$



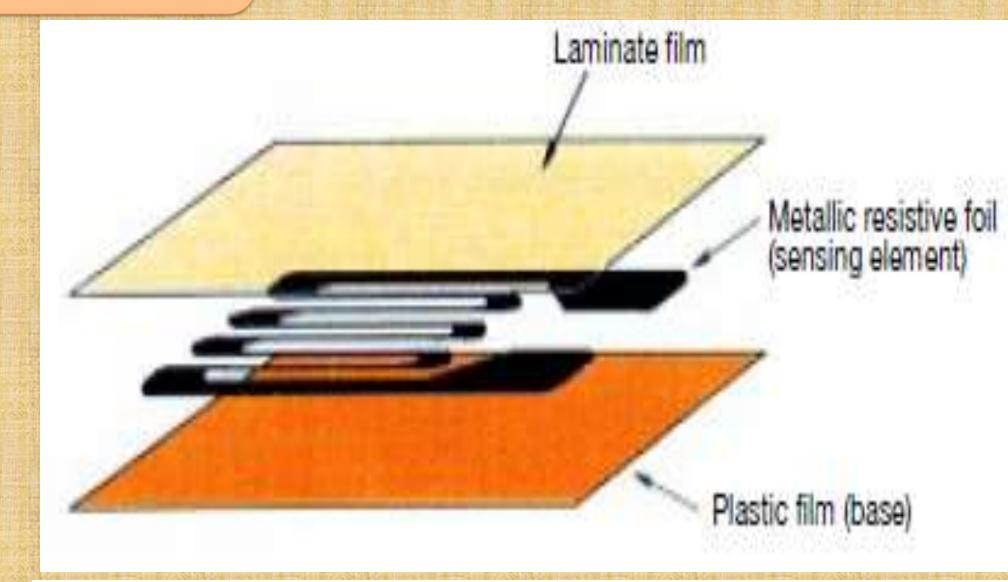


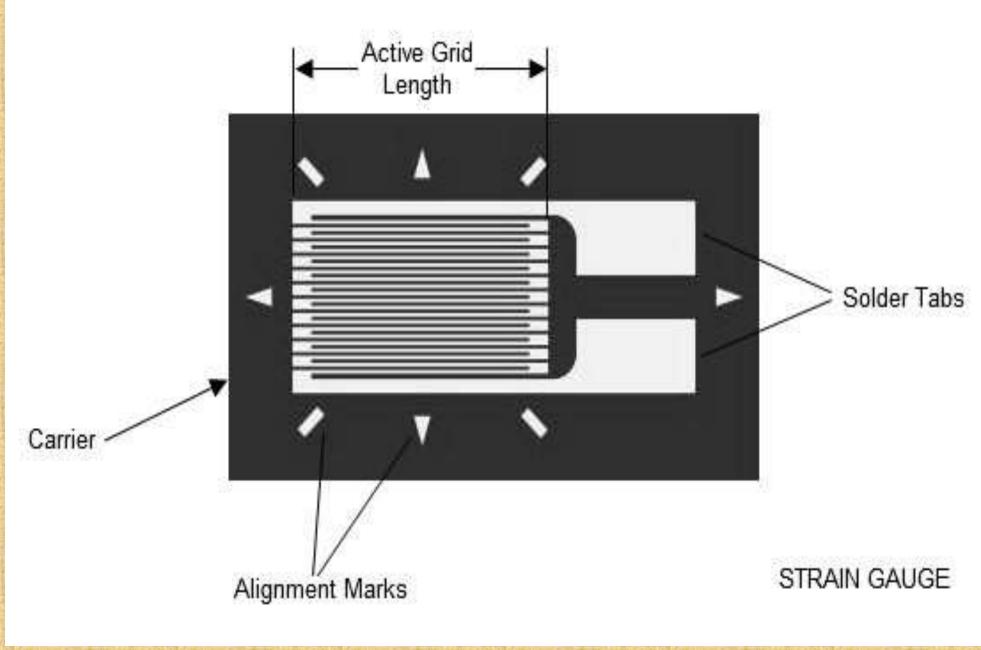
Strain Gauge

- ✓ Based on the variation of resistance of a conductor or semiconductor when subjected to a mechanical stress.
- ✓ The electric resistance of a wire is having length l, cross section A, and resistivity ρ is:

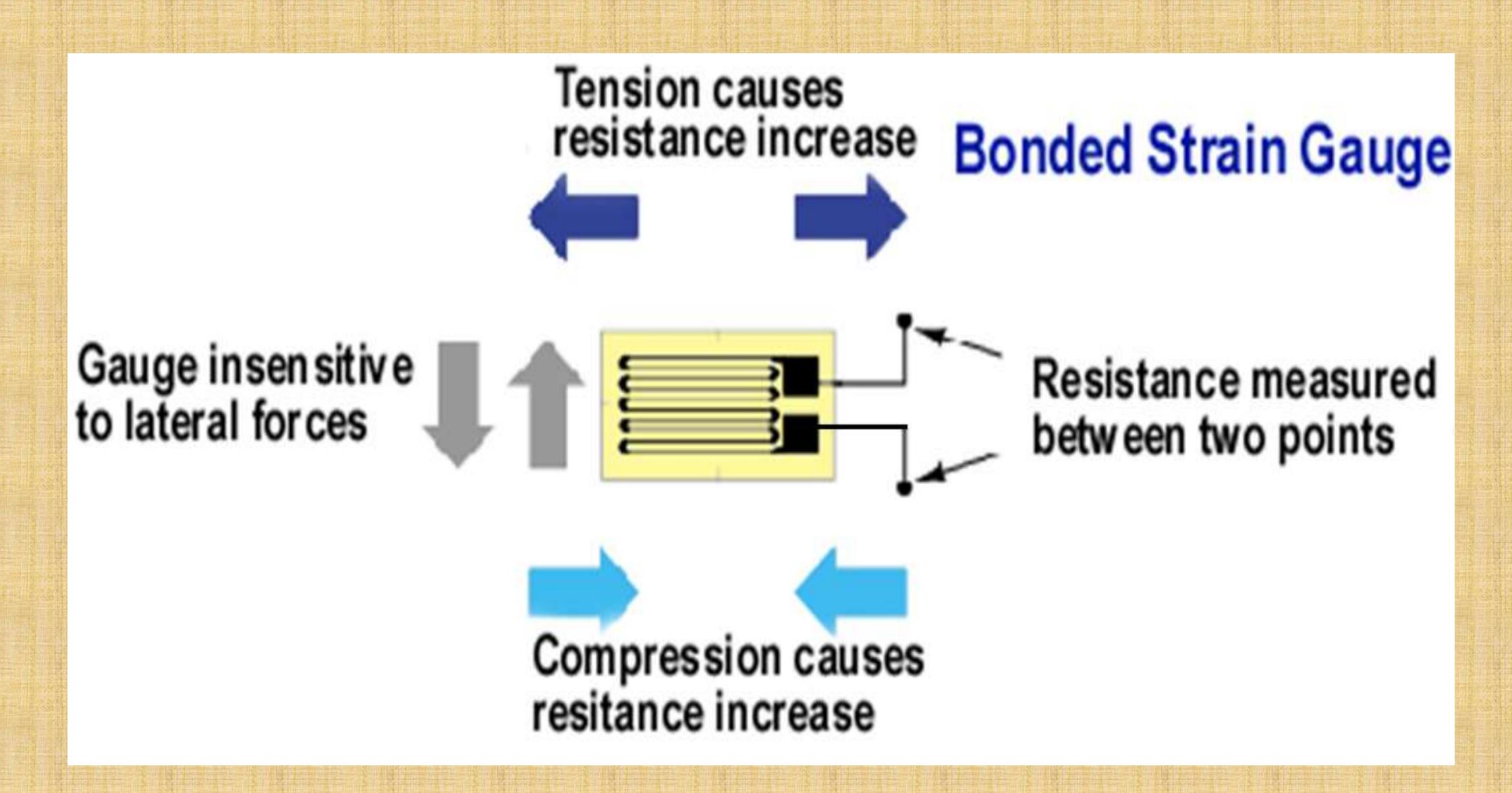
$$R = \rho \frac{l}{A}$$

- ✓ When the wire is stressed longitudinally, R undergoes a change.
- ✓ Passing small amount of current through such wire will, thus, help measure voltage change.
- ✓ The sensing element of the strain gauge is **made of copper-nickel alloy foil**. The alloy foil has a rate of resistance change proportional to strain with a certain constant.





Strain Gauge



Resistive Strain Gauge

Strain gauge is bonded to an object ,When subject to strain, its resistance R changes, the fractional change in resistance ${}^{\Delta R}/{}_{R}$ being proportional to the mechanical strain ${}^{\Delta L}/{}_{L}$.

$$\varepsilon_L = \Delta l/l$$



$$\Delta R/_R = G.\Delta l/_l$$

Wheatstone Bridge

Electrical Output
$$E_o \propto \Delta R/R$$

G is the gauge factor (Strain Factor)

Gauge Factor

The resistance R of a conductor of cross section area A, length L, made of material of resistivity ρ is $\mathbf{R} = \rho \frac{L}{A}$

Gauge Factor is Defined as
$$G = \frac{\Delta R/R}{\Delta L/L} = \frac{\Delta R/R}{\varepsilon_L}$$

 $\Delta R = R. G. \varepsilon_L$

Where ΔR being change in resistance due to axial Strain ε_L which is $\frac{\Delta L}{L}$

$$\frac{\Delta R}{R} = \frac{\Delta \rho}{\rho} + \frac{\Delta L}{L} - \frac{\Delta A}{A}$$

$$Area A is geometric dimension of strain gauge,$$

$$\frac{\Delta R}{R} = \frac{\Delta \rho}{\rho} + \frac{\Delta L}{L} - 2\frac{\Delta D}{D}$$

$$A = \frac{\pi}{4}D^{2}; \text{ where } D \text{ Diameter}$$

$$\frac{\Delta R}{R} = \frac{\Delta \rho}{\rho} + \varepsilon_{L} - 2\varepsilon_{T} \quad \text{Where } \varepsilon_{L} = \frac{\Delta L}{L}, \varepsilon_{T} = \frac{\Delta D}{D}$$

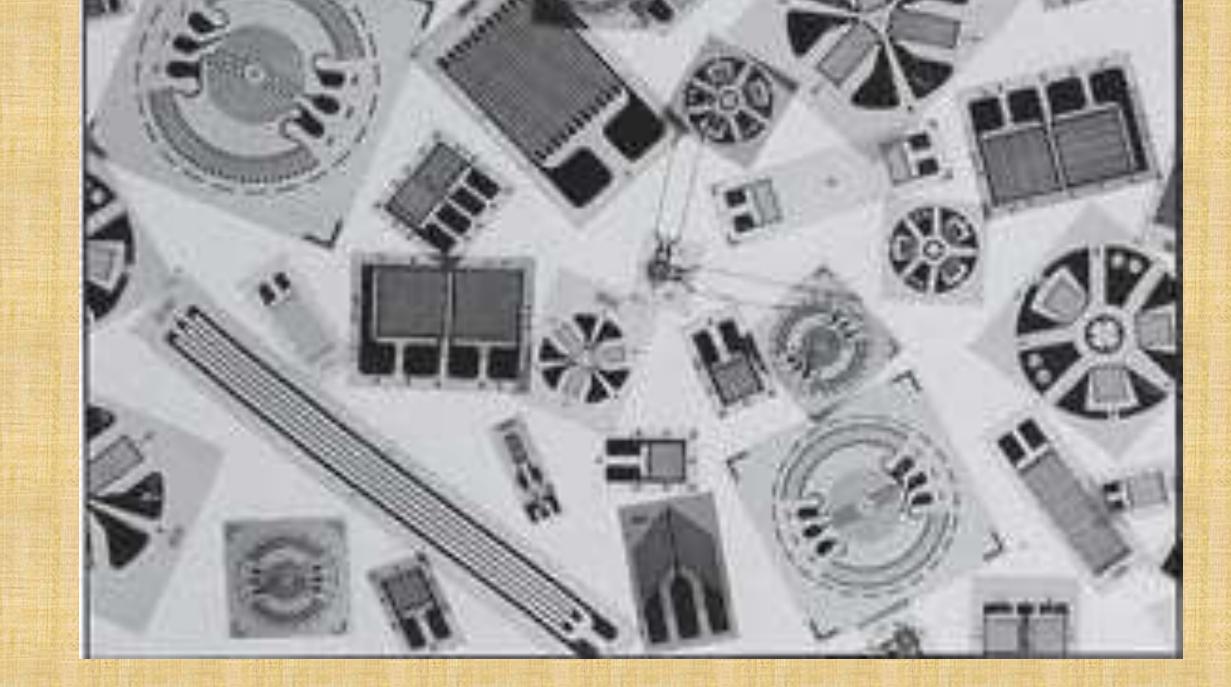
$$\frac{\Delta A}{A} = 2\frac{\Delta D}{D}$$

$$\frac{\Delta R}{\varepsilon_{L}} = \frac{\Delta \rho}{\varepsilon_{L}} + \frac{\varepsilon_{L}}{\varepsilon_{L}} - 2\frac{\varepsilon_{T}}{\varepsilon_{L}}$$

$$G = \frac{\Delta \rho}{\varepsilon_L} + 1 + 2\nu \approx 1 + 2\nu \qquad Where \nu = -\varepsilon_T/\varepsilon_L$$

Strain Gauge Type

- a. Mechanical S G
- b. Optical S G
- c. Electrical S G



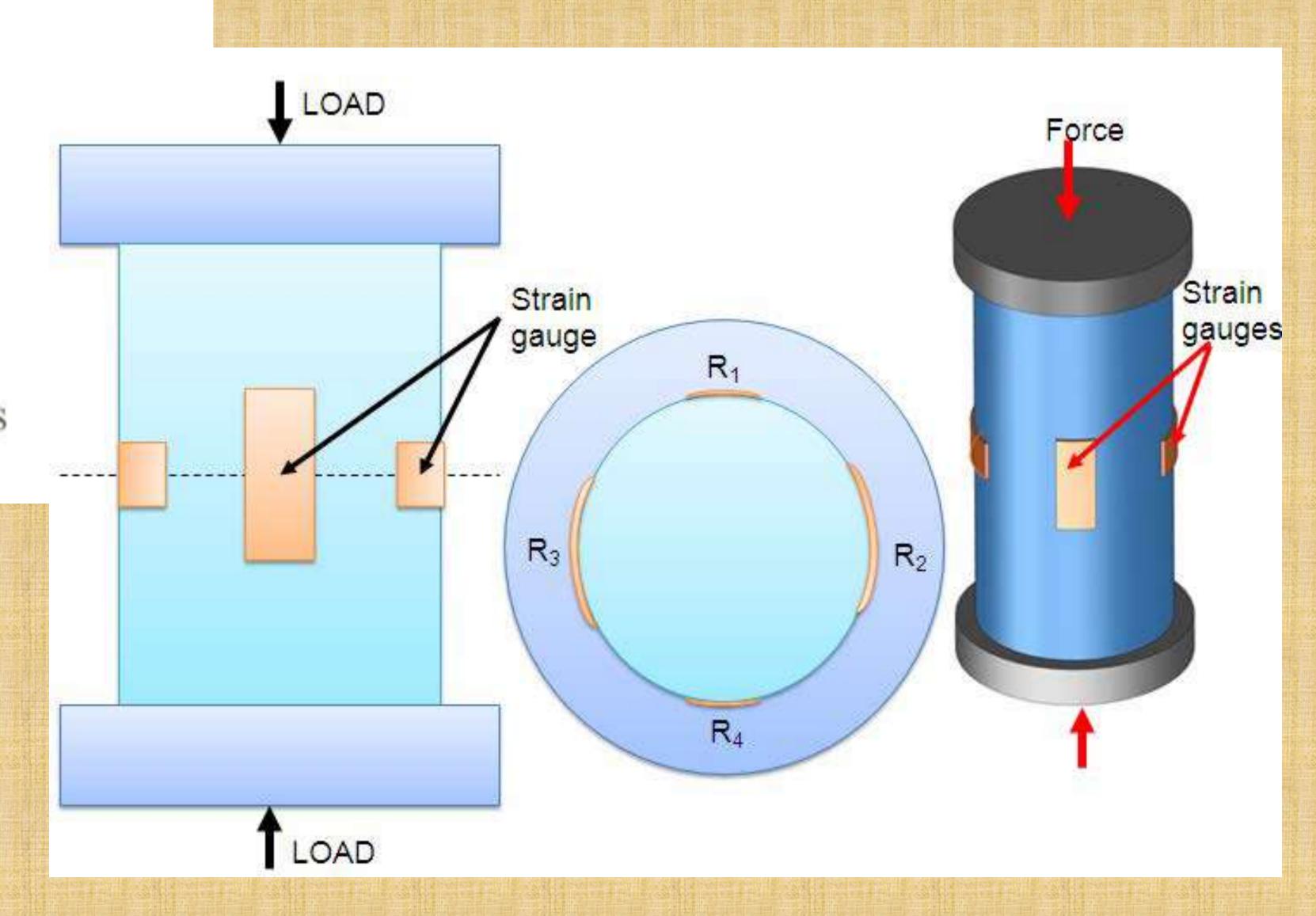
Selection Criterion

Operating Temperature, Nature of Strain, Stability

Requirement

Types of electrical strain gauges

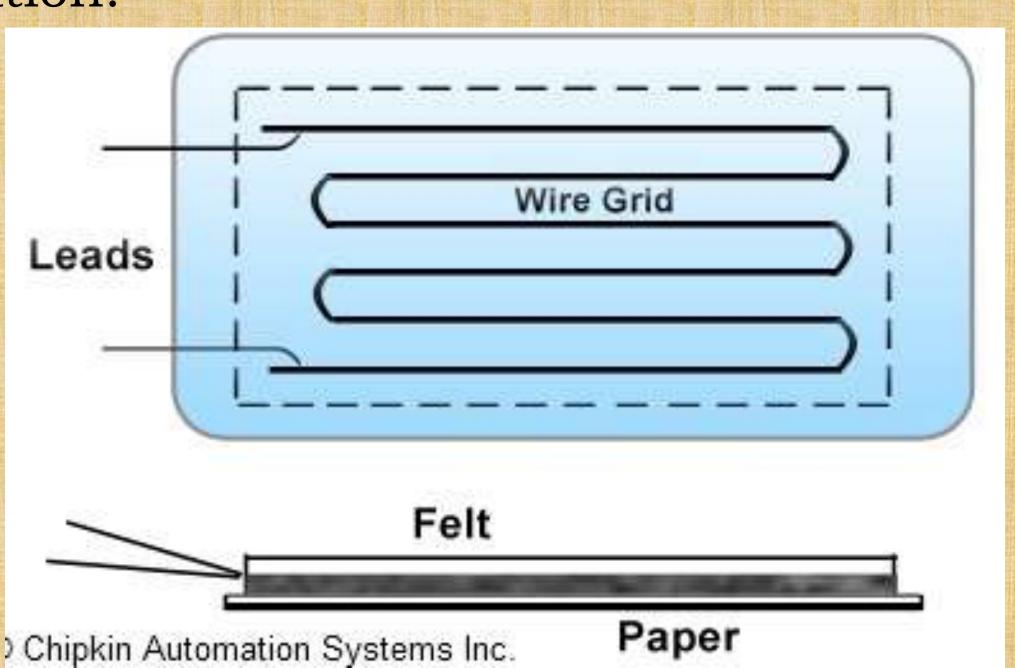
- Wire gauges
 - i. Flat grid type
 - ii. Wrap around type
 - iii. Single wire gauge
 - iv. Woven type
- Unbonded Strain gauges
- Foil gauges
- Semiconductor strain gauges
- Thin film gauges



Bonded Wire Strain Gauge:

- ✓ Consists of a *strain sensitive conductor* (wire) mounted on a small piece of paper or plastic backing.
- ✓ This gauge is <u>cemented</u> to the surface of the structural member to be tested. The wire grid may be & flat type or wrap-around.
- ✓In the *flat type* after attaching the lead wires to the ends of the grids, a second piece of paper is cemented over the wire as cover.
- ✓In the *wrap-around type*, the wire is wound around a cylindrical core in the form of a close wound helix. This core is then flattened & cemented between layers of paper for the purpose of protection and insulation.

✓ Formerly only wrap-around gauges were available, but generally *flat grid gauges are preferred as they are superior to wrap-around gauge* in terms of hysterisis, <u>creep</u>, elevated temperature, performance, stability & current carrying capacity.



Un-bonded wire strain gauge:

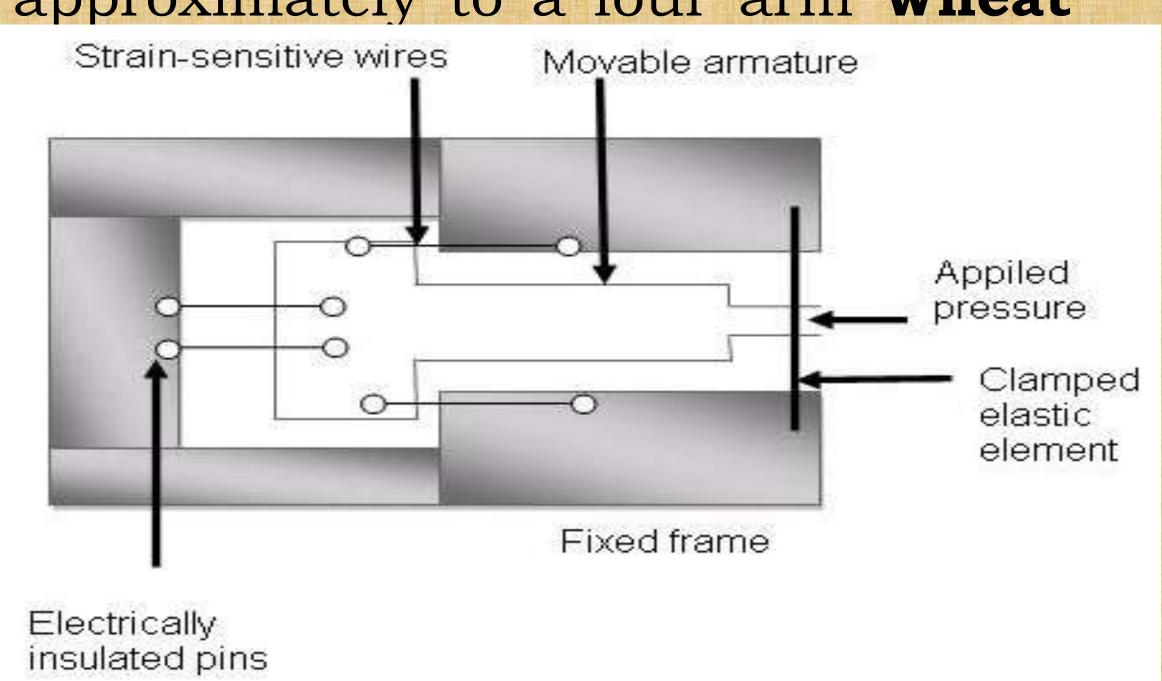
The principal is based on the change in electrical resistance of a metallic wire due to the change in the tension of the wire.

- ✓ This type consists of a stationary frame and a movable platform.
- ✓ Fine wire loops are wounded around the insulated pins with pretension. Relative motion between the platform and the frame increases the tension in two loops, while decreasing tension in the other two loops.

√These four elements are connected approximately to a four arm Wheat

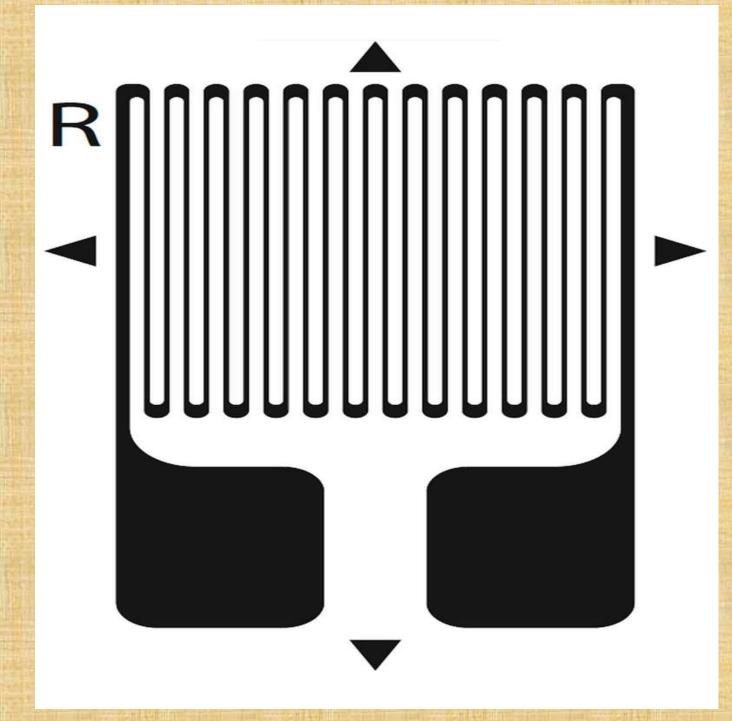
stone bridge.

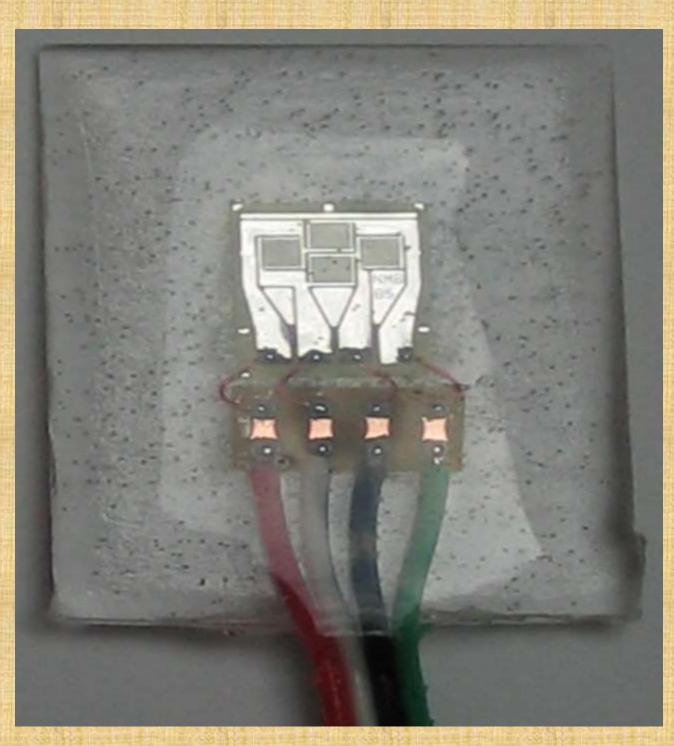
These type strain gauges are used for measurement of acceleration, pressure, force etc.



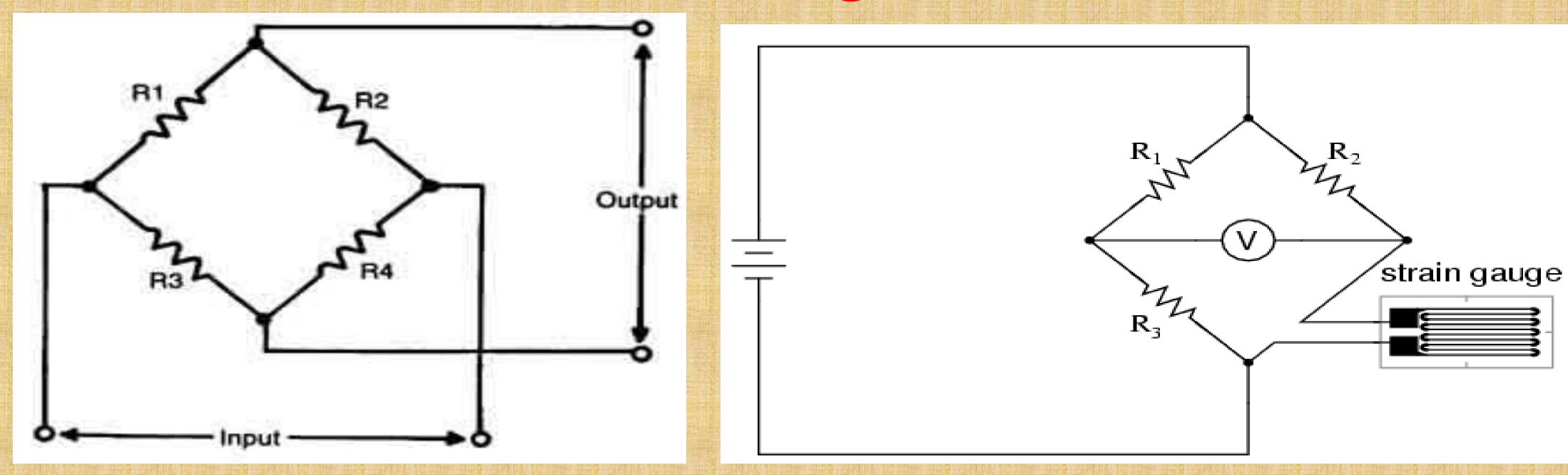
Foil Strain Gauges:

- ✓The foil type of strain gauges has a foil grid made up of thin strain sensitive foil.
- √The width of the foil is very large as compared to the thickness (microns) so that larger area of the gauge is for cementing.
- ✓ High heat dissipation capability
- ✓Better bonding properties

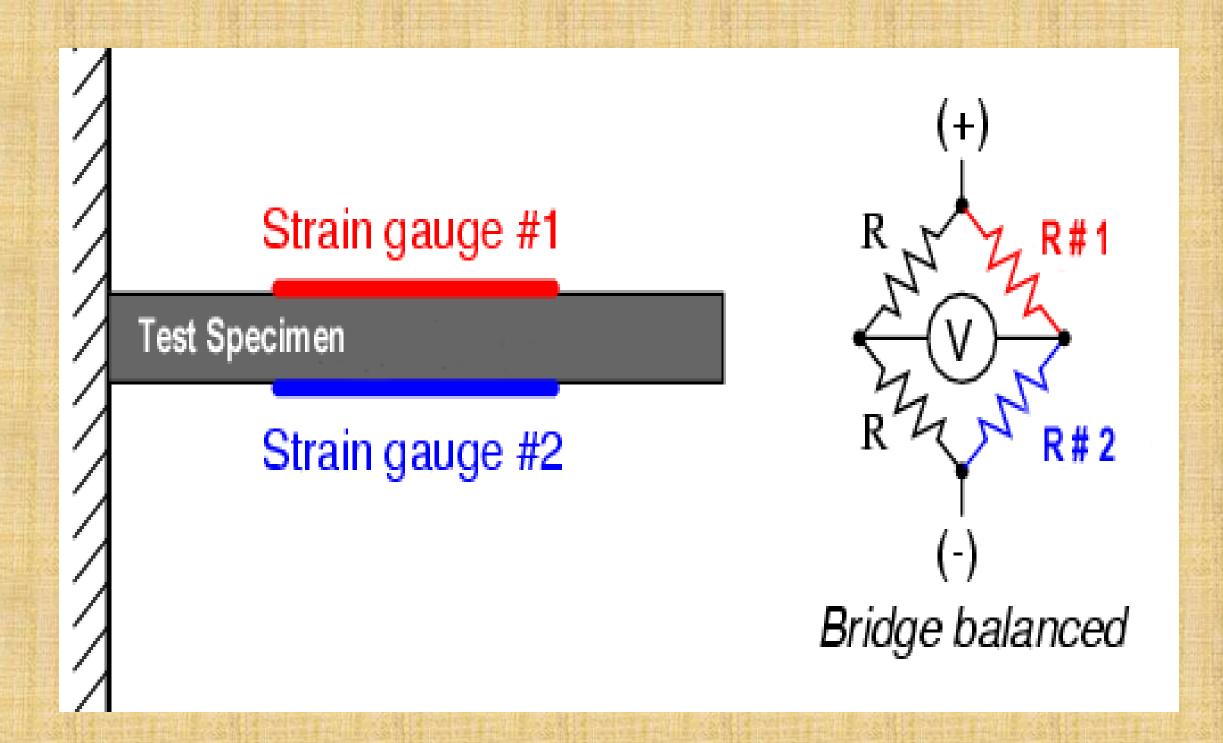


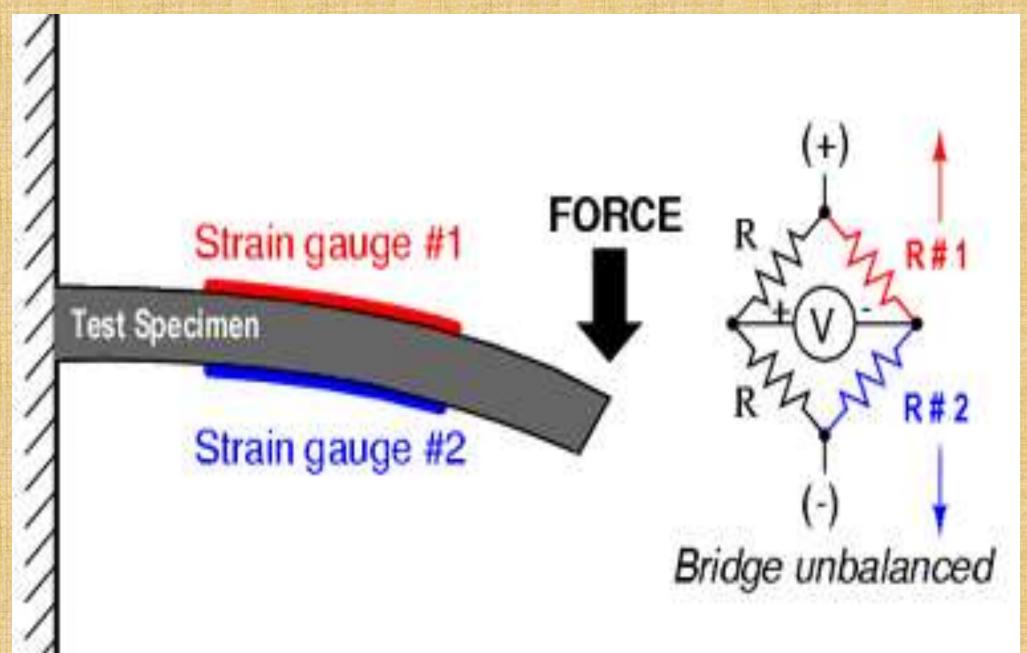


Strain Gauge Circuit



- ✓ The Wheatstone bridge is an electric circuit for detection of minute resistance changes. It is therefore used to measure resistance changes of a strain gauge.
- ✓ Strain gauge is connected in place of R4 in the circuit. When the gauge bears strain and initiates a resistance change, ΔR , the bridge outputs a corresponding voltage.





- With no force applied to the test specimen, both strain gauges have equal resistance and the bridge circuit is balanced.
- ✓ However, when a downward force is applied to the free end of the specimen, it will bend downward, stretching gauge #1 and compressing gauge #2

Strain Gauge Circuit

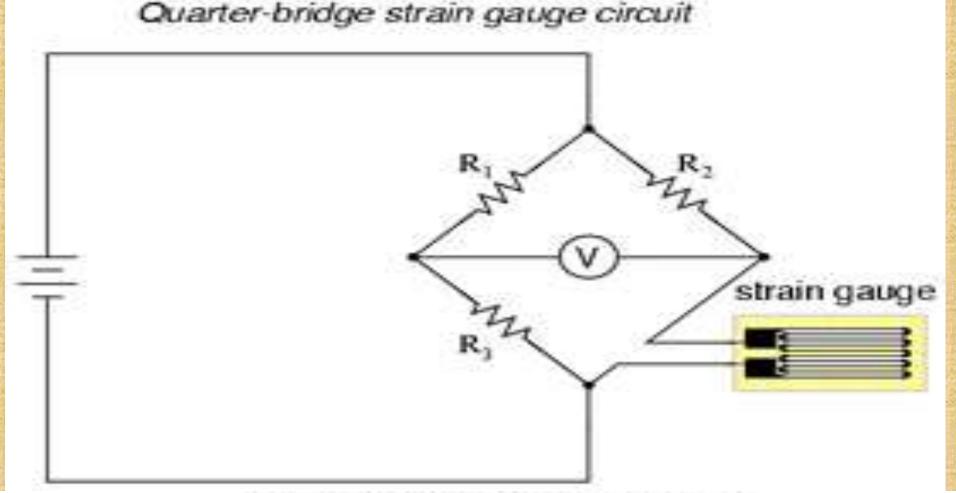
Quarter Bridge:
$$\frac{V_{output}}{V_{input}} = \frac{1}{4} \times GF \times \varepsilon$$

Half Bridge:
$$\frac{V_{output}}{V_{input}} = \frac{1}{2} \times GF \times \varepsilon$$

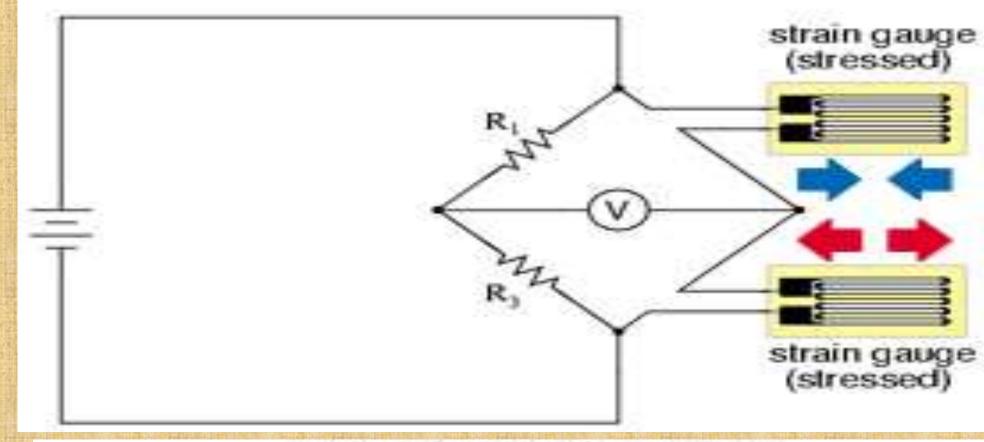
Full Bridge:
$$\frac{V_{output}}{V_{input}} = GF \times \varepsilon$$

In above eqns:

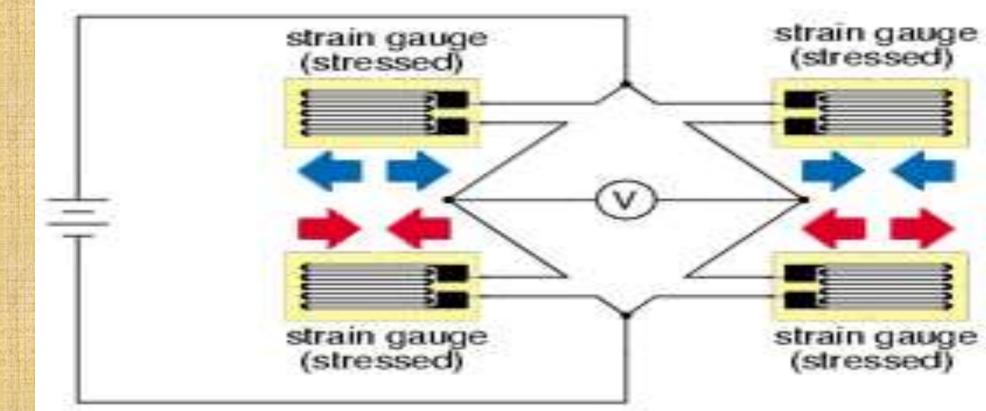
$$GF = rac{\Delta R}{\epsilon}$$
 $\varepsilon = rac{\Delta l}{l}$



Half-bridge strain gauge circuit



Full-bridge strain gauge circuit

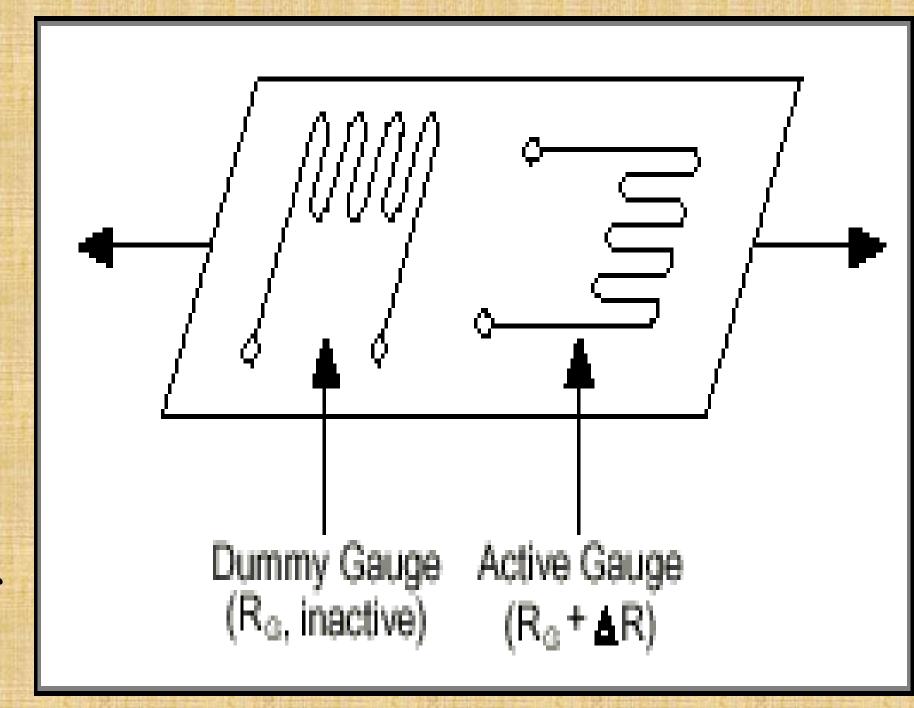


Effect of Temperature on Output of Gauge

- ✓ Ideally, we would like the resistance of the strain gauge to change only in response to applied strain.
- ✓ However, strain gauge material, as well as the specimen material to which the gauge is applied, will also respond to changes in temperature.
- ✓Strain gauge manufacturers attempt to minimize sensitivity to temperature by processing the gauge material to compensate for the thermal expansion of the specimen material; compensated gauges reduce the thermal sensitivity, they do not totally remove it.

Temperature compensation

- ✓ By using two gauges
- ✓One gauge is active, and a second gauge is placed transverse to the applied strain.
- ✓ The strain has little effect on the second gauge, called the dummy gauge.
- Because the temperature changes are identical in the two gauges, the ratio of their resistance does not change, the voltage does not change, and the effects of the temperature change are minimized.



Electromagnetic Flow sensor

✓ Magnetic flow meters operate based upon Faraday's Law of electromagnetic induction, which states that a voltage will be induced in a conductor moving through a magnetic field.

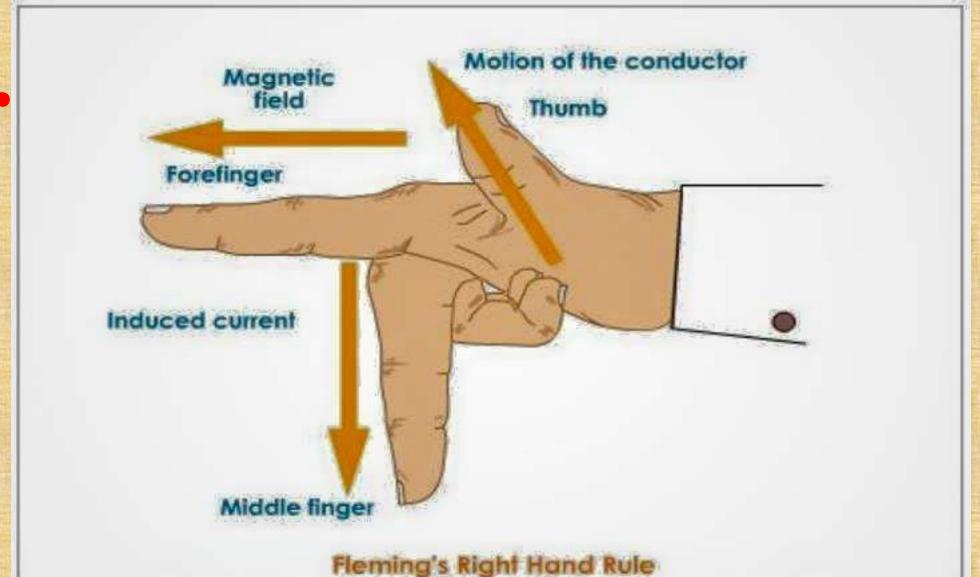
√Faraday's Law: E = k B D V

The magnitude of the induced voltage E is directly proportional to the velocity of the conductor V, conductor width D, and the strength of the magnetic field B.

✓ Magnetic field coils are placed on opposite sides a pipe to generate a magnetic field.

Electromagnetic Flow sensor

- ✓ As the liquid moves through the field with average velocity V, electrodes sense the induced voltage.
- ✓ An insulating liner prevents the signal from shorting to the pipe wall.
- ✓ The output voltage E is directly proportional to liquid velocity, resulting in the linear output of a magnetic flow meter.



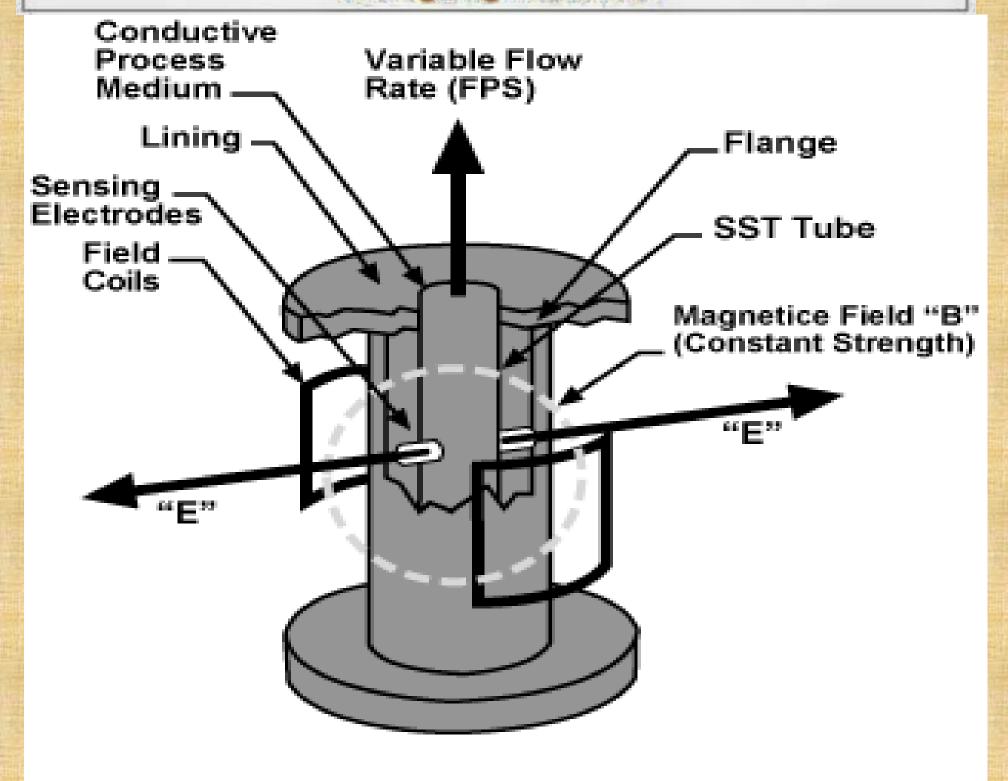


Figure 2.21 - The Magnetic Head Flow Meter

Advantages of Electromagnetic Flow Meter

- (i) The obstruction to the flow is almost nil and therefore this type of meters can be used for measuring heavy suspensions, including mud, sewage and wood pulp.
- ii) There is no pressure head loss in this type of flow meter other than that of the length of straight pipe which the meter occupies.
- (iii) They are not very much affected by upstream flow disturbances.
- (iv) They are practically unaffected by variation in density, viscosity, pressure and temperature.
- (v) Electric power requirements can be low (15 or 20 W), particularly with pulsed DCtypes.
- (vi) These meters can be used as bidirectional meters.
- (vii) The meters are suitable for most acids, bases, water and aqueous solutions because the lining materials selected are not only good electrical insulators but also are corrosion resistant.
- (viii) The meters are widely used for slurry services not only because they are obstruction less but also because some of the liners such as polyurethane, neoprene and rubber have good abrasion or erosion resistance.
- (ix) They are capable of handling extremely low flows.

Disadvantages-

- 1. Operating cost is high particularly if heavy slurries are handled
- 2. Must be full at all times because velocity as analogues to volume flow rate
- 3. Limited to fluid having conductivity at least of order of 0.05µmho/cm

Applications

Fluids like sand water slurry,

coal powder, slurry, sewage, wood pulp, chemicals, water other than distilled water in large pipe lines, hot fluids, high viscous fluids specially in food processing industries, cryogenic fluids can be metered by the electromagnetic flow meter.

Actuator Types

converts an information signal from the control, into energy acting on the basic system.

FORCE / MOVEMENT

ELECTRICAL AND MAGNETIC

ACOUSTIC

HEAT

OPTICAL

Actuators



Movement: electromagnetic



Light:



Torque: electromagnetic



Current: voltage



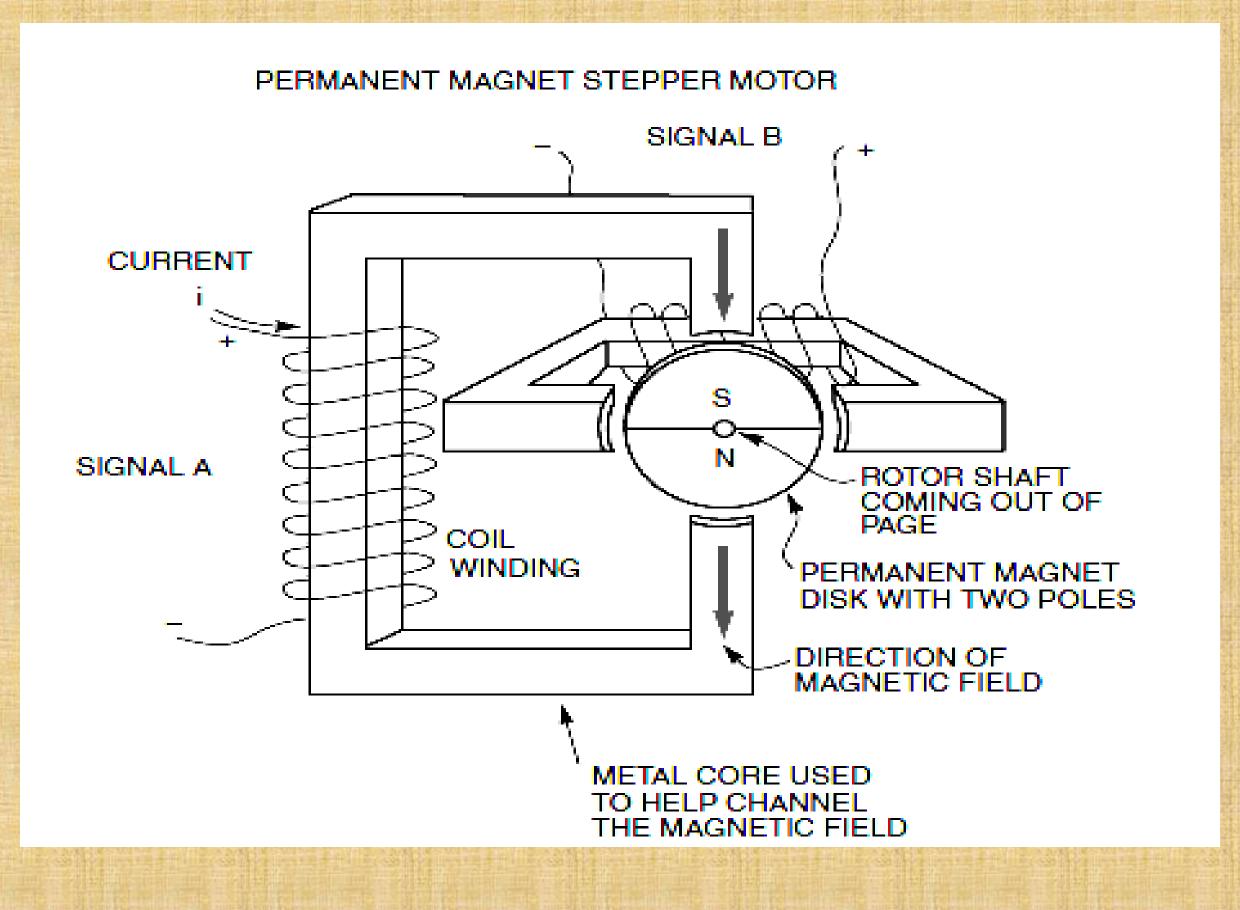
Movement: pneumatic

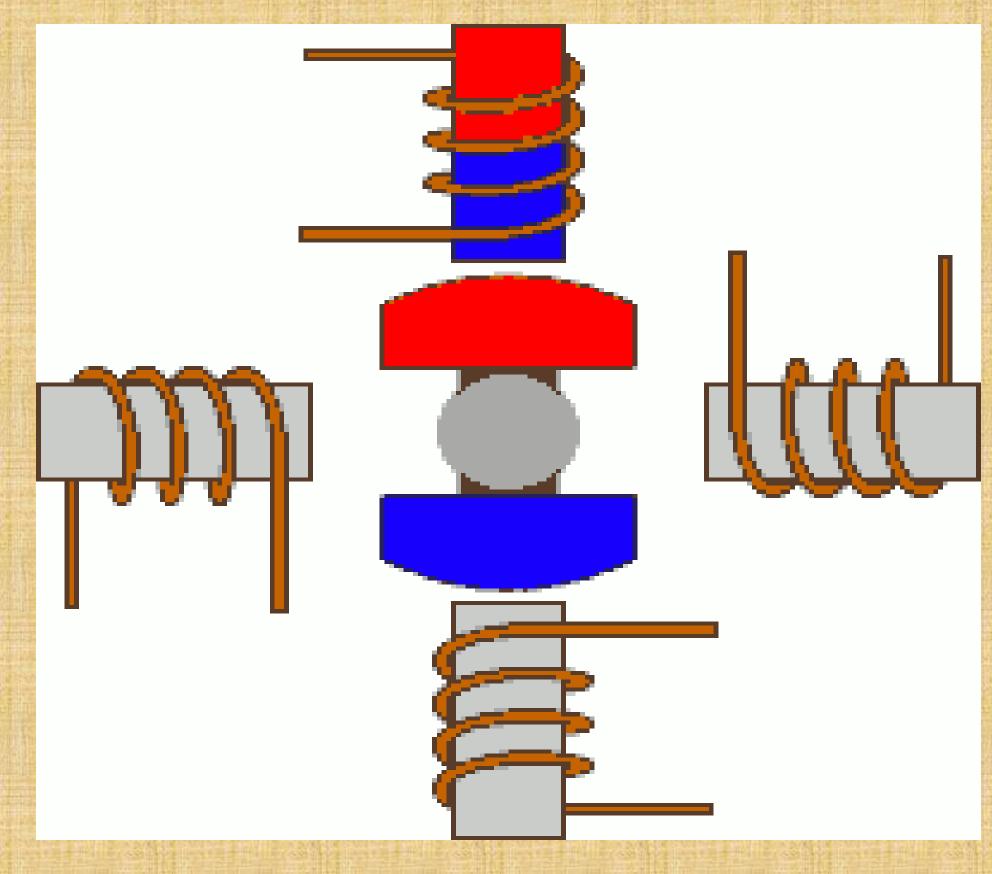


Sound: electromagnetic

Stepper Motor

- Discrete Positioning device
- Moves one step at a time for each input
- Appropriate excitation in winding/s, makes the rotor attract towards the stator

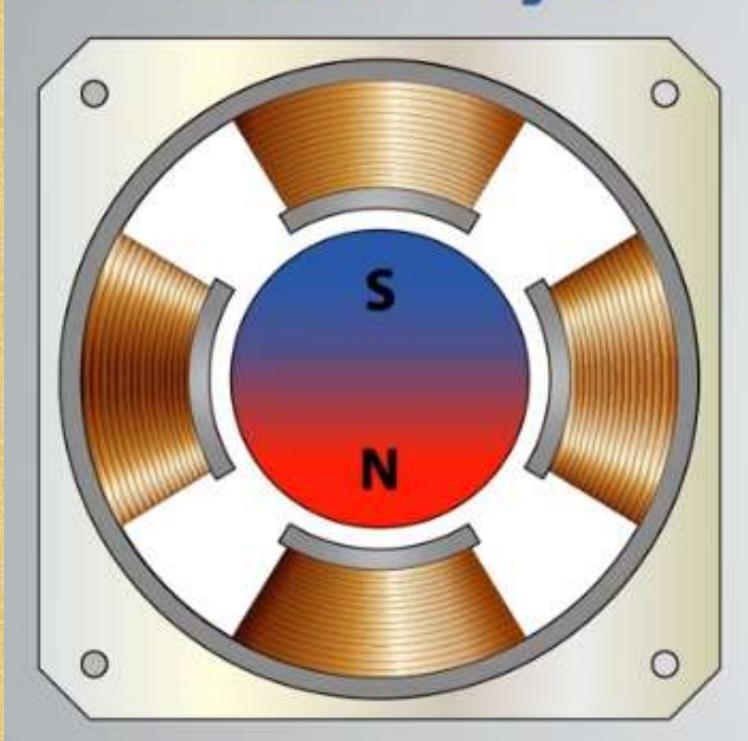




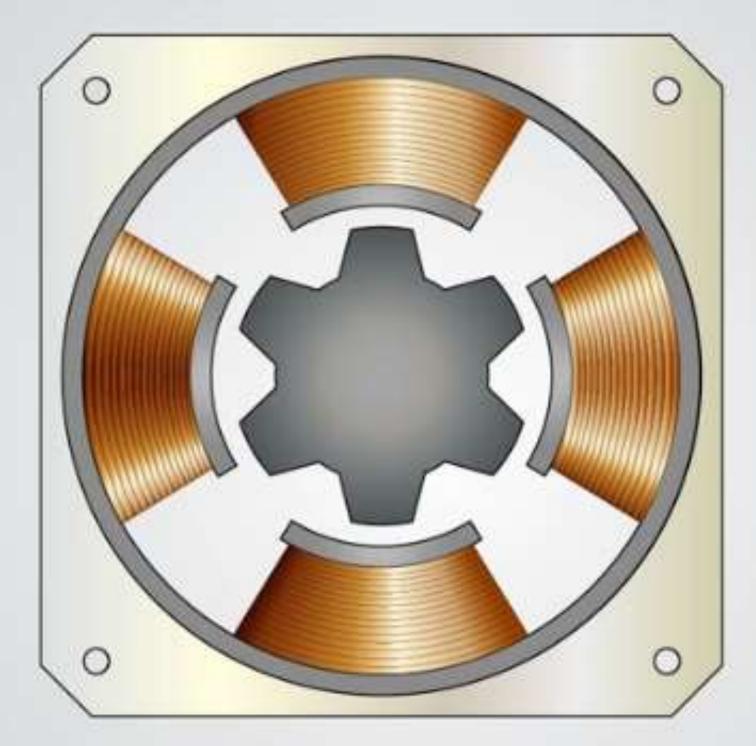
Stepper Motor

Types of Stepper Motors by Construction

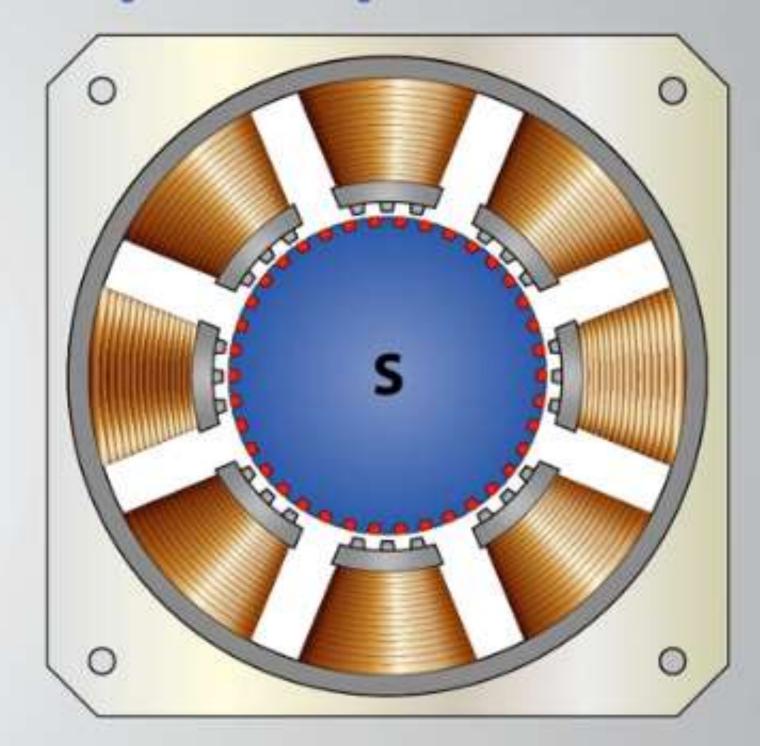
Permanent Magnet



Variable Reluctant



Hybrid Synchronous



Advantages

- 1. The rotation angle of the motor is proportional to the input pulse.
- 2. The motor has full torque at standstill (if the windings are energized)
- 3. Precise positioning and repeatability of movement since good stepper motors have an *accuracy of 3 5%* of a step and this error is non cumulative from one step to the next.
- 4. Excellent response to starting/stopping/reversing.
- 5. Very *reliable since there are no contact brushes* in the motor. Therefore the life of the motor is simply dependant on the life of the bearing.
- 6. The motors response to digital input pulses provides *open-loop control*, making the motor simpler and less costly to control.
- 7. It is possible to achieve *very low speed synchronous rotation with a load* that is directly coupled to the shaft.
- 8. A *wide range of rotational speeds* can be realized as the speed is proportional to the frequency of the input pulses.

Disadvantages

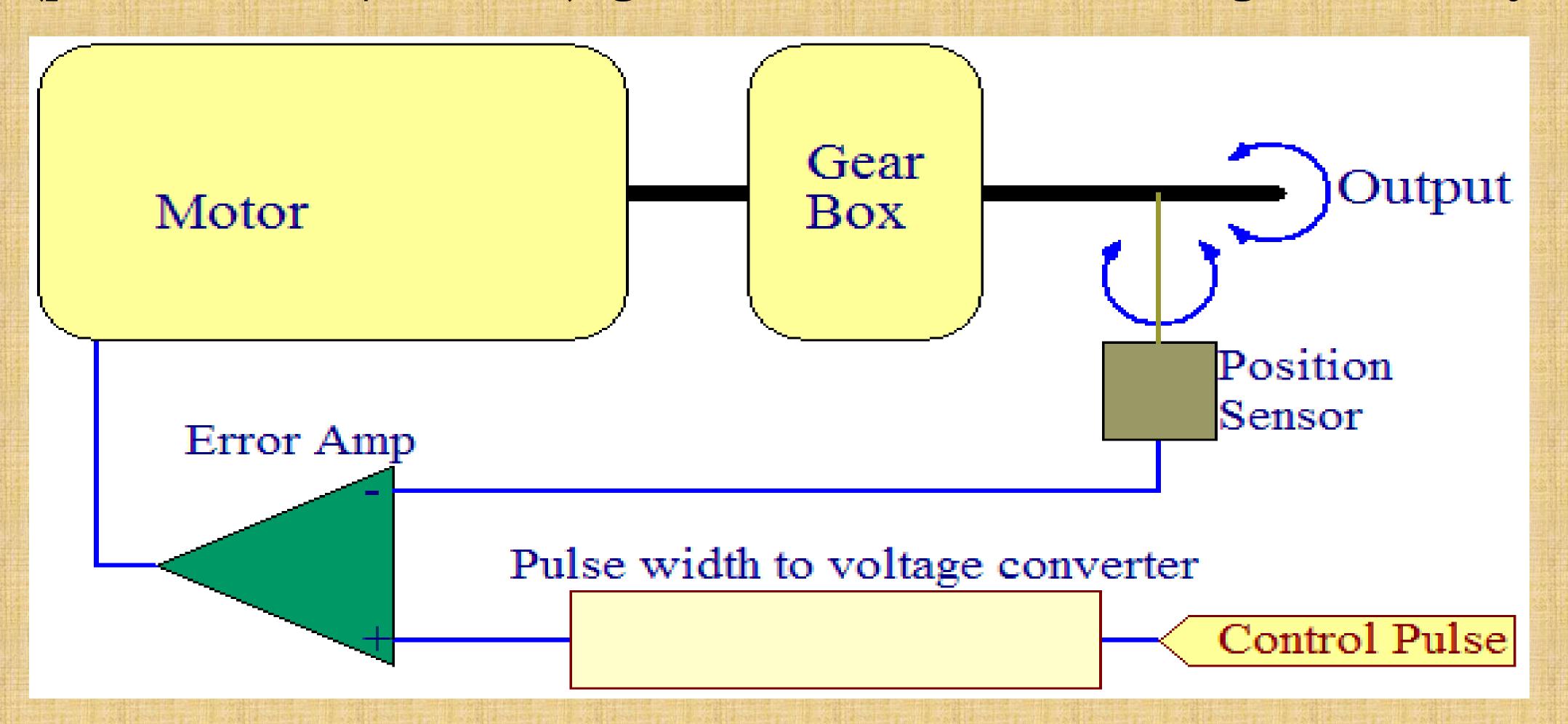
- 1. Resonances can occur if not properly controlled.
- 2. Not easy to operate at extremely high speeds.

Servo Motor

- ✓ Precise control of angular position, velocity and acceleration
- ✓ Electric (DC/AC) motor driven using *Pulse Width Modulation*(PWM)
- ✓ Closed looped control system
- ✓ Basically DC motor (in some special cases it is AC motor)
- ✓ Servo unit consists small DC motor, potentiometer, gear arrangement, an intelligent circuitry

Servo Motor

• Servo mechanism consists of position sensor (potentiometer/encoder), gear mechanism and intelligent circuitry



Advantages:

- 1.If a heavy load is placed on the motor, the driver will increase the current to the motor coil as it attempts to rotate the motor.

 Basically, there is no out-of-step condition.
- 2. High-speed operation is possible.

Disadvantages:

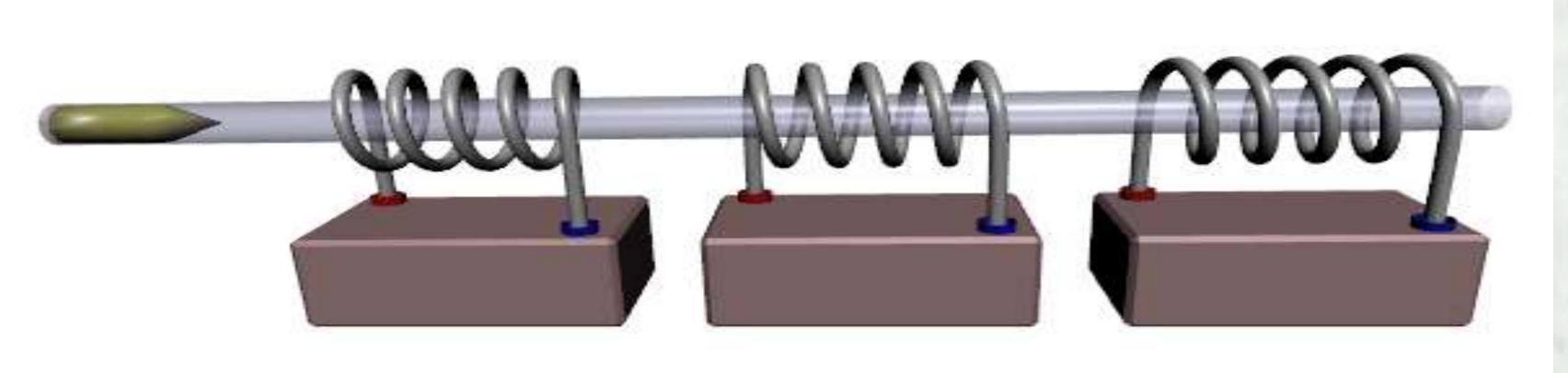
- 1. Since the servomotor tries to rotate according to the command pulses, but lags behind, it is **not suitable for precision control of rotation.**
- 2. Higher cost.
- 3. When stopped, the motor's rotor continues to move back and forth one pulse, so that it is not suitable if you need to prevent vibration

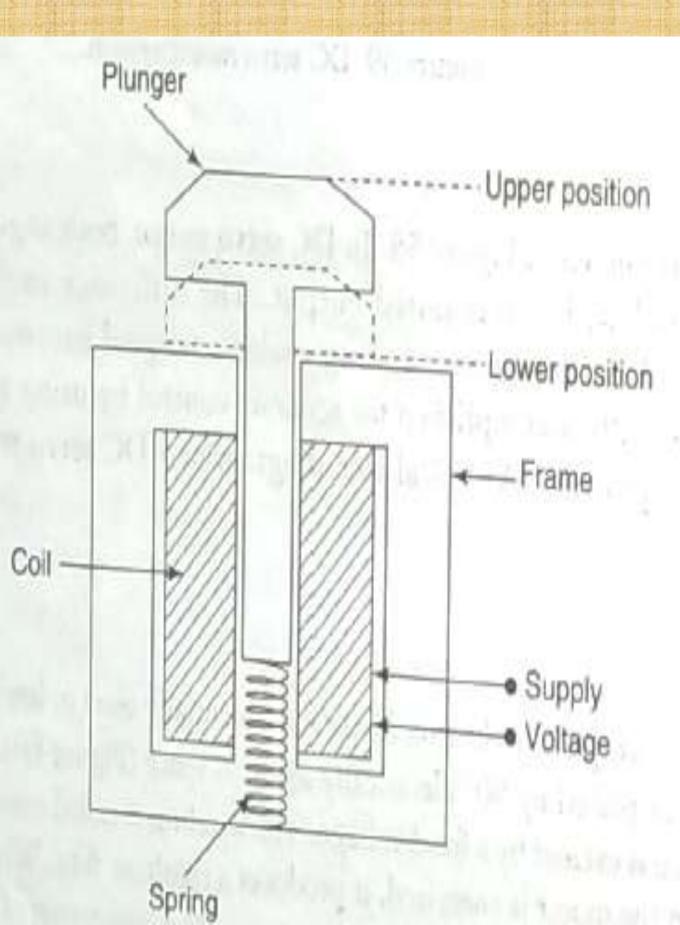
Applications of Servo Motors

- 1.In Industries they are used in machine tools, packaging, factory automation, material handling, printing converting, assembly lines, and many other demanding applications robotics, CNC machinery or automated manufacturing.
- 2. They are also used in radio controlled airplanes to control the positioning and movement of elevators.
- 3. They are used in robots because of their smooth switching on and off and accurate positioning.
- 4. They are also used by aerospace industry to maintain hydraulic fluid in their hydraulic systems.
- 5. They are used in many radio controlled toys.
- 6. They are used in electronic devices such as DVDs or Blue ray Disc players to extend or replay the disc trays.
- 7. They are also being used in automobiles to maintain the speed of vehicles.

Solenoid Actuator

- Electromagnetic actuator
- Consist of a movable ferrite core that is activated by current flow
- When the coil is energized, a magnetic field is established that provides the force to push or pull the core
- Provide large force over a short duration
- Normally used as linear actuator
- Application in-Room heating, gas flow, water flow etc





Working-

- ✓A solenoid is defined as a coil of wire commonly in the form of a long cylinder that when carrying a current resembles a bar magnet so that a moveable core (armature) is drawn into (pulled-in) the coil when a current flows.
- ✓ A more simple definition is that a solenoid is a coil and a moveable iron core used to convert electrical energy into mechanical energy.
- ✓ Normally, the movement of the core compresses a spring.
- ✓ On power-off, the armature returns back to its normal
- ✓ The stroke of the armature varies from fraction of a mm to several mm depending on application.

There are two main categories of solenoids:

Rotary – rotary motion of the armature

Linear – linear motion of the armature